2018

UNDERSTANDING THE IMPACT ON THE WELLBEING OF STUDENTS WITH SPECIFIC LEARNING DIFFICULTIES THROUGH TEACHING INTERVENTIONS

Williams, Dylan K

http://hdl.handle.net/10026.1/12835

http://dx.doi.org/10.24382/598
University of Plymouth

Copyright Statement

UNIVERSITY OF
PLYMOUTH

UNDERSTANDING THE IMPACT ON THE WELLBEING OF STUDENTS WITH SPECIFIC LEARNING DIFFICULTIES THROUGH TEACHING INTERVENTIONS

by

DYLAN K WILLIAMS

A thesis submitted to University of Plymouth
in partial fulfilment for the degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

Plymouth Institute of Education

2018

Acknowledgements

This thesis could not have been completed without the help and support of many dear friends and colleagues. In lieu of thanking every person who has helped, inspired, reassured, and held my feet to fire, I will just say that this doctorate reflects many years of learning for me, and that involves you all.

I must thank my supervisors for their patience and understanding through difficult times, when between my ill health and my other work-loads, they stuck by me, providing me wonderful guidance and heart-warming support. Thank you Dr Rebecca McKenzie, and Dr Suanne Gibson. Thank you to several other colleagues who took particular time to work with me on my data analysis design process. It was wonderful to be able to turn to the wider faculty and others around the university to get specialist guidance and access to resources.

I must say an enormous thank you to my fiancé Darlee-Athila, who has helped me remain motivated, and has been so understanding, when times were tough. She has put up with the stresses and strains of my work, almost as long as I have known her.

Finally I wish to thank all the schools who took part in the study, and particular thanks to the SENCOs in these schools who in all cases took on the mantle of facilitating my research within the schools. I was made to feel very welcome, and I am so grateful for you taking on the administrative burden that resulted from my activities.
Thank you to all the staff and pupils whose contributions are the basis of my research. The power behind your stories and photographs helped me to access perspectives that were otherwise foreign to me. I hope that you feel represented by the study.

Author's Declaration

At no time during the registration for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy has the author been registered for any other University award without prior agreement of the Doctoral College Quality Sub-Committee.

Work submitted for this research degree at the University of Plymouth has not formed part of any other degree either at University of Plymouth or at another establishment.

A programme of advanced study was undertaken, which included taught modules taken.

Word count of main body of thesis: 79977

Signed : 

Date : 23 / 11 / 2017

Abstract

The study set out to explore whether teaching methods can improve the wellbeing of students with SpLDs. This study addresses a gap in the literature, identifying wellbeing differences between different types of educational environment and SEN provisions. It explores whether there are benefits from inclusive education to student wellbeing, considering constructs of wellbeing relevant to the impact of SpLDs, synthesising pedagogic, psychotherapeutic and developmental perspectives.

74 student participants were recruited through the SEN departments of 4 UK schools - each with differing approaches to SEN support. Student participants completed two psychometric wellbeing questionnaires. They also engaged in photographic exercise, capturing scenes of importance to them, which contributed to semi-structured interviews. 8 teacher participants engaged in semi-structured interviews. These teacher participants also had their classroom practice observed.

Parallel interpretative phenomenological analyses (IPA) were used to interpret the findings. Several themes from both student and teacher IPA analyses revealed a differences between 2 pairs of schools, which was supported by the same difference in psychometric scores and classroom observations. Schools environments were found to have common features of inclusion either absent or present which were recognised by both students and teachers within their own social world perspectives, which were predictive of wellbeing. This study identified that school aged students with SpLDs could articulate the relationship between inclusive teaching and their wellbeing.

Table of Contents

List of Illustrations

List of Tables

List of Abbreviations

This thesis utilises many similar sounding abbreviations, which stem from multiple fields of knowledge. This thesis may be useful to individuals from multiple fields of study, and therefore the below list serves to avoid confusion with terminology. Each term listed below appears in full for the first time in every different chapter

ADD / ADHD	Attention Deficit Disorder / Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder
APA	American Psychiatric Association
BDA	British Dyslexia Association
BMSLSS	Brief Multidimensional Student Life Satisfaction Survey
BERA	British Educational Research Association
CAMHS	Child and Adolescent Mental Health Services
DfE	Department for Education (UK Government)
DfES	Department for Education & Skills (UK Government – *Defunct*)
DSM –IV/-V	Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders -4/-5
EAL	English as and Additional Language
EHCP	Education Health and Care Plan
fMRI	Functional Magnetic Resonance Imaging
GCSE	General Certificate of Secondary Education
HC	Hermeneutic Cycle
ICT	Information and Communication Technology
IPA	Interpretative Phenomenological Analysis
LEA	Local Education Authority
MANOVA	Multivariate Analysis of Variance
MBE	Mind Brain and Education
MSLSS	Multidimensional Student Life Satisfaction Survey
OCD	Obsessive–compulsive Disorder
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
OFSTED	Office for Standards in Education, Children's Services & Skills
PANAS-C	Positive and Negative Affect Schedule for Children
PhD	Doctor of Philosophy
PSHE	Personal, Social, Health and Economic Education
PWB	Psychological Wellbeing Battery
SATS	Standardised Achievement Tests (UK National Curriculum)
SCIF	Secondary Classroom Inclusion Framework
SDQ-II	Self-Description Questionnaire-II
SEAL	Social and Emotional Aspects of Learning
SEN	Special Educational Needs
SENCO	Special Educational Needs Coordinator
SEND	Special Educational Needs and Disabilities
SLSS	Student Life Satisfaction Survey
SpLD	Specific Learning Difficulty
SPSS	Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (IBM Corporation)
SSI	Social Skills Inventory
TA	Teaching Assistant
ZPD	Zone of Proximal Development

1 . Introduction

This chapter aims to prepare the reader for exploring this thesis by introducing the structure of the study, providing a vignette of the study's initial rationale, and giving insight into the researcher's own background.

This brief introductory chapter begins by describing a crisis in modern education in the United Kingdom, where after decades of research, many students are still suffering with difficulties with learning, commonly referred to as Dyslexia or Specific Learning Difficulties (SpLDs). The literature on SpLDs and choice terminology is explored in Chapter 2, so here instead the researcher aims to paint a picture based on their own interactions with individuals with SpLDs.

Children and adults with SpLDs have been the focus of studies exploring their intellectual ability, methods of remediation and support, and the way in which they learn *differently* (Mortimore, 2008; Stewart, 2010). Three decades of research have also highlighted the negative impact on their mental health, social role and endured stigma, and general wellbeing (Leonova, 2012; Mellard & Woods, 2007; Norwich & Kelly, 2010; Dagnan & Sandhu, 1999). Despite this clear evidence, little has been done to tackle the problem.

Aside from the academic literature, 'common' understanding of the experiences of individuals with SpLDs in schools, are poorly understood, perhaps even by those affected (Alexander-Passe, 2017). This study aims to draw attention to some of these issues, and to explore how these individuals can be better supported.

1. 1 'Common' Understanding of the Experiences of Individuals with SpLDs

Emeritus Professor Christopher Bartlett commented in relation to the research approach in his own PhD that (Piekkari & Welch, 2011):

> *"I used to work for an honest living, before I became an academic …"*

His case-based approach was inspired by practical issues he had observed. Here, the researcher's topic of study and approach was also influenced by experience of practical issues from working life prior to commencing academia. Below are three brief narratives of individuals known to the researcher, whose stories inspired the researcher to pursue this field of enquiry *[pseudonyms have been used to protect identities]*.

Angus, 41

> Angus was diagnosed with dyslexia and ADHD as a child. Teachers were ill-equipped to handle him, and he was threatened with exclusion. Angus was also unusually 'gifted' in many intellectual capacities, displaying abilities far greater than his teachers. Despite this, he left school at 16 with very poor grades. His reading and writing skills were holding him back.
>
> Angus learnt to satisfy his intellect through self-study, and through integrating tasks with practical elements. He began to master many disciplines such as engineering, bushcraft, computing, and strategic games. These pursuits were however quite isolating passtimes because his way of learning / understanding was different than other people's. It was hard for him to share his knowledge, particularly through writing. He was also physically fit and had a natural talent for snowboarding. Sadly he found that like most other skills, that in order to get employment or earn money from them, there was a requirement for doing paperwork.

Angus spent his 20s and 30s moving from job to job. He was unable to find the support he needed in the workplace to allow him to progress professionally. Angus has extraordinary potential, and it is sad that his 'different' abilities were not accommodated into professional ranks.

Sarah, 28

Sarah was diagnosed with dyslexia and dyspraxia at age 8. Sarah was incredibly shy, and found school to be extremely intimidating. She experienced clinical levels of stress and anxiety in relation tasks at school, and was bullied. Low self-esteem made her emotionally vulnerable, and this was still apparent into early adulthood. The mental scars of her early school experiences are still with her today, and she experiences similar emotional responses to academic or written work.

Sarah was fortunate that her parents could afford to pay for her to attend a specialist private school from aged 9. Her experiences of this new learning environment that accommodated her learning style had a dramatic change on her life. Sarah learned to understand her dyslexia and overcome some of the trauma she had undergone. She was able to get good GCSE grades and although she struggled with university, she went on to find a professional role as psychotherapist, counselling children who have experienced trauma.

Sarah learnt to use her distressing experiences in a positive way because she was able to access the support and resources that she needed.

Mark, 22

Mark was diagnosed with dyslexia at 16. He did not enjoy many school subjects, and he showed poor motivation, which was reflected in his grades. His talents for creative and

artistic school subjects however were impressive. His mother is also an artist, and therefore she had always nurtured and encouraged these skills. With support from helpful tutors and his family, he was able to get A* grades in drama, art, music, and computing, and he had ambitions to go on to study Media and Film at college.

He was rejected by the college because he had a D grade in English, and so he was tested and confirmed as being severely dyslexic. The college continued to refuse his application until special representation was made. He was given the opportunity to showcase some of his creative talents, and the college eventually allowed him onto the course. He went on to university where he was given access to a notetaker and specialist individual learning support, and he was able to achieve high grades. He now works as a professional cameraman and has founded his own multimedia production company.

These three cases share common themes with studies highlighting the distressing impact of living with an SpLD, the damage done by institutional discrimination against SpLDs, and the effect on the life course of having an SpLD (Alexander-Passe, 2010; Edwards, 1995; Gibson & Kendall, 2010). These cases also provide evidence that change has been slow. Angus's experiences are over 30 years old, while Mark's story is as recent as this thesis.

Whether or not one has support from teachers and others who understand SpLDs and who can recognise the strength of different abilities seems to have been pivotal in these case situations. So what is the moral justification for the lack of adequate provision and accommodation in UK schools? Why are so many children still left behind? (Miles, 2000; Goswami, 2008b). Neither an egalitarian philosophy of access to education, nor a philosophy of moral deserts favouring educational superiority, are served (Jónsson, 2012). Surely the categorical imperative is <u>not</u> for *everyone to have access to the same standard of education*, <u>but</u> for *everyone to have access to*

the education that is right for them? (McLeskey, et al., 2014). Diversity in education environments has been shown to benefit everyone by providing new challenging perspectives and broader opportunities (Cooper, 2009b; Henson & Eller, 2012).

UK education policy is currently aiming for greater degrees of uniformity, with increasing standardised tests, more rigorous focus on core subjects, and fewer freedoms for teachers (Florian, Black-Hawkins & Rouse, 2016). Concurrently child mental health and bullying in the UK are at record proportions, and funding and access to support for pupils with SpLDs is at a worrying low (Bor, et al., 2014; Evans-Lacko, et al., 2017; Alexander-Passe, 2017). Discrimination against children with SpLDs has also reportedly formed part of the policy of some schools (Perraudin, 2016; Noden, West & Hind, 2014). The researcher therefore urgently feels that now is the time to put forth additional evidence and try to understand the impact on the wellbeing of pupils with SpLDs.

1.2 The Researcher's Background

In the previous section I described the initial motivation and context for the study, and the relevance of the study in the current climate. Depending on the epistemological approach, a researcher cannot ignore their own biases, subjectivities, and positionality when undertaking a study (Clough & Nutbrown, 2012; Thomas, 2009b; Denzin, 1986). This thesis comes at the end of a long and uninterrupted period of study for me, but also of continual concurrent employment. Therefore both before, and throughout undertaking of this research, I have been constantly influenced by new academic input and information, and professional experience and growth.

I began university relatively late in life, and therefore spent most of my working life alongside people without academic qualifications. I took a keen interest where people were held back in their roles, where I was able to progress. Often individuals appeared trapped in limiting roles or lifestyles. I noted that two common factors were mental health and dyslexia. I was intrigued by the injustice of these situations, and eventually decided to go to university and study psychology and sociology.

Whilst studying my undergraduate degree I worked as a mental health worker and in drug and alcohol services doing counselling, and running rehabilitation groups. Mental health / clinical processes provided me a 'real-world' perspective for the theories that I was studying. Studying psychology provided a positivist basis that structured my academic development, and yet my 'real-world' professional experience often seemed better characterised by post-structural, neo-marxist, and post-modern discourses. This led to my interest in more holistic approaches to understanding therapeutic solutions and mental health, including models of wellbeing.

Brentano (1982), in his works Deskriptive Psychologie, is largely responsible for conceiving subjective psychology, and the phenomenological standpoint. While this has undoubtedly

influenced my approach to integrating different psychologies, psychiatric definitions are arguably more prominent in formative psychology education because they are inherently structured. Chomsky (1972) argues that the linguistics of the mainstream psychology discipline restrict our thinking and understanding of some subjective processes. Despite my training in psychotherapies, I consider myself to be postmodernist. My pursuit of wellbeing in this study comes from a belief in the emancipation of education for social good. Like Foucault (Ali, 2002) I recognise the hegemony of the psychiatric practices, and so my approach has been to explore the liberating character of different contexts.

I am not a school teacher, and my main experience teaching has been in teaching English as a foreign language abroad. Because practitioner researcher is now a mainstay in UK education practice and research, teachers are well placed to conduct research in schools. Being an 'outside' researcher is therefore a position that I humbly acknowledge. I am not researching the school environment as an expert on teaching, and therefore I approached the study with particular care to the inter-subjectivities in the process, including observer effects (Webb, Campbell, Stanley & Sechrest, 1966; Williams, 1999). In the previous section I describe three people whose education experiences inspired this research, but I cannot ignore my own experiences at school. I have a lifelong health condition which at times my school refused to support me with. This no doubt made me more aware of injustice in the education system.

As my work and education have increasingly converged, I recognise that I am drawn towards solutions or approaches that integrate my various knowledge and experience. From the outset I have viewed this research as not only something to fill a gap in the literature regarding the wellbeing of students with dyslexia, but also as a means of exploring and bridging the fields of psychology and education to reflect relevant social and political changes within the United Kingdom in recent years (Exley & Ball, 2011). This has been significant in my choice of

methodology and analysis because the approach needed to provide distinct outcomes relevant to both discursive positions.

Scheurich (1994) identifies the relevance of social class for educational researchers. Class discrimination is something that I have also practically worked with and lived through with my work in rehabilitation and teaching. Some academics and social commentators have suggested that dyslexia is an excuse used by 'middle-class' parents to avoid children being labelled as underachieving (Camber, 2007). Statistically dyslexia disproportionately affects individuals from working class backgrounds (Macdonald, 2010; Macdonald, 2012). Whilst I have efforted to explore student's experiences in a way that goes beyond comparative boundaries of class, my perspectives are as polarized as a neo-Marxist in a labour shortage when it comes to the funding of support for school students with specific learning difficulties, including dyslexia assessments. It is both purposive and personal that the findings of this research are directed at policy makers in schools and in government.

1.3 Outlining the Thesis

In establishing the researcher's motivation for undertaking research into the wellbeing of students with SpLDs, this aspect of the initial context of the study has been explained. In the previous sections the researcher denotes the limitations of their current ontology in relation to the research topic. The three narrative inspirations are also limited firstly by their subjective and hindsight recounting, and by the bias of the perspectives of the individuals. The phenomena of experiences requires a more thorough and contextually interpreted perspective (Caelli, 2000).

1.3.1 Research Problem

The suggestion from the three narratives is that different available support and resources affects the educational, psychological, and life outcomes for individuals with SpLDs. Acknowledging a desire to accommodate the individual needs of students, and to try to better these outcomes, the research problem exists in discerning the vehicle(s) through which this can be managed, and the by understanding the actors/agents with the potential to engage in change. Therefore this challenging topic is approached by exploring the impact of teaching methods. Knowing that some learners with SpLDs suffer reduced wellbeing or become marginalised at school, the initial research question becomes:

"How can teaching methods improve the wellbeing of students with SpLDs?"

1.3.2 Structure of Thesis

The purpose of the study is to explore the initial research question. This process is subdivided into the below tasks in order to develop, investigate, and report upon discriminant research questions:

- Explore relevant literature

  Chapter 2 and Chapter 3 contain a detailed literature. Chapter 2 aims to understand who pupils with SpLDs are, and how their experiences of school can differ. Chapter 3 explores how to conceptualise pupil wellbeing within the learning context

- Define operational terms for the study

  Chapter 2 and Chapter 3 both conclude by providing separate operational definitions for the construction of the research question

- Interpreting the Epistemology of the Research Question

  Chapter 4 begins by scrutinising the relationship between key phenomena and operational definitions for the study, to interpret the research question

- Explore the design of the methodology

  Chapter 4 describes in detail designing the research methodology and outlines the relationship between the different tools and measures contributing to three parts of the study:

  - Comparisons of the schools
  - IPA interviews
  - Observational analysis of classrooms

- Develop and conduct an analysis process

Section 4.3 explores the reflective deliberation of a 'troubled analysis'. This describes the process of reformulating the research paradigm and analysis at a critical juncture in the study. Chapter 5 reports on various preliminary analyses and outlines the process of the primary analysis

- Discuss the primary results of the analysis

  Chapter 6 reports and discusses on thematic outcomes from two interpretational phenomenological analyses – student / teacher samples

- Consider the implications of the findings

  Chapter 7 begins by exploring meta-theoretical interpretations for the findings from the previous chapter. This level of interpretation goes beyond phenomenology to examine social construction and post-structural perspectives

- Propose adaptations to policy and practice intending favourable changes to the outcomes characterised in the previous

  Chapter 7 concludes by outlining potential future research opportunities and suggesting ways in which stakeholders in special educational needs provision in UK schools could improve practice and policy

2 . Understanding Specific Learning Difficulties

This chapter introduces key models and theories of specific learning difficulties, and explores how they differ from other learning support needs. It then goes onto examine policy and practice, and potential outcomes for such individuals, with a focus on the ideology of inclusion

The literature on specific learning difficulties (SpLDs) is broad and consists of different and conflicted perspectives. There is mixed and multiple terminology covering the subject in general; furthermore despite different diagnostic labels there remains a need to establish working definitions that situate SpLDs in terms of identity, experience, policy and educational interventions, considering the wider implications of these. This introductory chapter aims to examine the categorisation and definitions surrounding SpLDs that apply to both research and practice, and to evaluate how accurate and useful such models are. Following on, it will offer an answer to who children with SpLDs are, exploring issues relating to comorbidity, behaviour, and emotional experiences.

The term SpLD is a widely recognised in UK schools and in education research. However, as this chapter will detail, older terminology, and the problems that are associated with traditional diagnoses, remain influential. Understanding SpLDs therefore involves understanding dyslexia, as well as other less common learning support diagnoses including dyspraxia, dyscalculia, dysgraphia, and ADHD, and comorbid behavioural issues. It is not the aim of this thesis to challenge or re-present diagnostic labels, nor to update our working knowledge of these support needs, but rather to juxtapose epistemological positions in order to explore broader outcomes, such as the impact on individual and collective wellbeing (Beacham & Alty, 2006), the impact on identity that can result from policies of exclusion (Anderson, 2009), and to explore what can be

done differently (Kiziewicz & Biggs, 2007). This chapter will provide a detailed review of current knowledge about SpLDs, as well as examining current policy and practice.

SpLDs have historically been categorised and labelled, including, Dyslexia, Dyspraxia, Dyscalculia, and others. These diagnostic labels have particular meanings and theories attached to them within different discourses, including neuroscience, cognitive psychology, and pedagogy. The terms contribute to neuroscience and cognitive psychology discourses by outlining clustered statistical commonalities, as differences from a model of typical functioning. These epistemologies add considerable knowledge and understanding to the field of SpLDs because they ground the existence of SpLDs in supportable scientific fact. These perspectives however seldom offer useful insight into supporting these individuals (Fischer, 2009). Furthermore numerous studies demonstrate that the definitions do not stand up to the scrutiny of mere individual differences (Norwich & Lewis, 2005; Elliott & Grigorenko, 2014). Fischer (2009) draws the analogy of a farmer who only has a list of agricultural facts at hand, but no practical knowledge or experience. These disciplines provide plenty of information about SpLDs, but do not explain how to understand the support needs of these individuals, nor the intricacies of their experience. Education and pedagogy is a discipline of active practice where methods and tools are developed and used with individuals, considering more complex daily tasks than in experimental contexts (Caccamise & Snyder, 2005). New knowledge of these different outcomes are sadly seldom fed back into cognitive psychology and neuroscience.

A difficult line for these approaches to breach is between positivist and constructivist types of knowledge (McCaslin & Hickey, 2001). Thomas (2009a) suggests that an epistemology of inclusion for SpLDs must integrate practice and scientific based discourses into ‘common epistemology’. Miller, et al. (2008) describes approaches researchers can take towards this epistemological pluralism, and this is discussed in greater detail in third chapter. Fischer (2008,

2009) proposes developments of knowledge integrating the array of epistemological positions at each stage. This allows researchers to retain the integrity of findings and integrate outcomes for multiple audiences and applications. This section below introduces knowledge from across the spectrum, presenting conceptions of SpLDs.

2. 1 Specific Difficulties with Learning

In the learning context where SpLDs are most commonly situated and managed identification of SpLDs is primary. In the UK the SEN Code of Practice (DfES, 2001) outlines a practical approach for teaching staff to monitor, gather information, and deliver interventions for children with SpLDs. A graduated approach based on need is central to the system that promotes the rights and needs of children in their school attainment, and in general development. This guide merely refers to the classification determined by an educational psychologist (Hall, 2008). The rigidity of educational statements has created some controversy (Al-Hroub, 2010; McPhillips, Bell & Doveston, 2010). Although now replaced with Education Health and Care Plans, the model used is still medically oriented. They are typically in the format of listing diagnos(e)s, and then after some explanatory evidence about the extent of the condition. The statement then describes the provisions that the school must provide and the progress they are expected to make (Norwich, 2014; DfES, 2001). The culture of reliance on a diagnosis has two significant issues:

i) Children who could benefit from some specific intervention, but do not meet required standards do not get diagnosed, and so no funding for support is available

ii) There is great variation within the definition of each diagnosis, but the label is often used by teachers to efficiently or cost-effectively group provision together (Wearmouth, 2004)

The model of SpLDs that relies on diagnosis has both practical issues, as well as not being biologically accurate. The terminology is most similar to that of learning disabilities, and in the American Psychiatric Association Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders: fourth edition (APA DSM-IV) SpLDs are actually labelled as learning disabilities (Goswami, 2008a; Goswami, 2008b; Collishaw, Maughan & Pickles, 2004). Although this is modernised in the DSM-V, this outdated approach has had considerable influence on practice and research. General learning disabilities are identified as a person having an IQ less than 70 points, whilst SpLDs

contrastingly refer to the presentation of specific difficulties (below average cognitive or otherwise functional ability) in specific areas, such as reading or mathematics, despite a typical range IQ. The medical model of SpLDs has been strongly criticised in recent literature for its unhelpful approach to labelling, because this type of categorisation created individually labelled diagnoses (Nicolson & Fawcett, 1995). SpLD learning needs are better understood by looking at the difficulties that they face. The expression of these difficulties is different in each individual. Variations in performance demonstrate that it is only possible to denote trends or theories for these (Snowling, Gallagher & Frith, 2003).

2.1.1 Prevalence

SpLDs affect almost 20% of school aged children, with 10% of school children being diagnosed as having dyslexia (British Dyslexia Association, 2012). These prevalence figures are however by no means assured. Many studies over the same timeframe indicate a considerably lower percentage of individuals with SpLDs (NHS Choices, 2015; Jokisuu, Langdon & Clarkson, 2011; Dyslexia Scotland, 2014). It is impossible to know the percentage of individuals of any age group with SpLDs because the diagnostic guidelines change, the affordable access to diagnosis varies over time and between regions, and studies indicate that a considerable number of individuals, particularly aged below 10 years old go undiagnosed (Thornton, 1999; Alexander-Passe, 2010). The British Dyslexia Association's figures are widely respected; however they represent the upper limit of estimates. This is due to a strongly supported, but considerably different perspective from much of the literature: defining SpLDs in terms of the difficulties they present. Different approaches to identification yield different answers and target different groups for potential inclusion. The most inclusive definitions of SpLDs also attract the highest estimations of prevalence.

2.1.2 Reading difficulties

The written word is translated from the graphemes and morphemes on the page, into orthographic units. Words have phonology, and phonology has rules and exceptions that must be processed. Different languages also have differences in cognitive processing – based on different grapheme-phoneme matching, orthographic structure, graphemic style and complexity, alphabetic structure, etc. (Sparks & Ganschow, 1991; Ziegler & Goswami, 2005). Reading is profoundly central to traditional methods of teaching and learning. Despite certain adaptive modern pedagogies, reduced reading ability continues to create a separation from the institution of education.

The phonological processing deficit theory for reading problems is the most common. When a word is read it is sounded out, matching grapheme to phoneme (Tijms, 2004). A phonological deficit hinders the rate and accuracy of this matching, and thus reading is slow and difficult. Desroches, Joanisse and Robertson (2005) suggest that eye tracking is affected by the same inaccuracy in the process. Phonemic processing can guide eye tracking by expecting next words, or relationships between words. Where this is inaccurate or absent (as was found for certain types or rhyme formation in their study) this can lead to inappropriate focus or shifting of the visual field. There is considerable evidence for phonological deficit theories, particularly where phonological learning has been identified as a clear predictor of reading ability (Ziegler & Goswami, 2005; Harm & Seidenberg, 2004).

Gabrieli (2009) uses functional magnetic resonance imaging (fMRi) to identify the plasticity following support interventions for reading. After intervention (that has shown increased performance) activity during reading is higher than with a typical comparable child, and there is considerable heightened activation in surrounding regions of the brain (Gabrieli, 2009). Other studies similarly revealed changes in additional areas of the brain with different interventions

(Richards, Berninger & Fayol, 2009; Corbett, 2011). Although parts of the brain involved in reading and language are affected, a neuroscientific perspective cannot understand the complexities of plasticity, or what the effect of these is. The success of interventions also correlates to changes in fMRi readings or morphology (Shaywitz, Mody & Shaywitz, 2006).

Magnocellular dyslexia is a morphological atypicality in the magnocellular region of the visual cortex – responsible for processing rapid visual motion. This may lead to difficulties in processing saccadic blocks whilst reading (Stein, 2001). The focus of attention and ability to serially search visual information are fundamental in reading because of the format of written language on the page (Harley, 2007). Reading difficulties can occur without evidence of phonological processing difficulties (Facoetti & Molteni, 2001). Some individuals with SpLDs experience greater visual attention difficulties or serial visual processing problems (Valdois, et al., 2011). Magnocellular temporal processing theories provide contrary evidence about whether difficulties with reading are separate (Stein & Walsh, 1997; Peyrin, et al., 2012). These studies suggest that several difficulties associated with dyslexia are related to visual attention, and not phonological processing. There is plurality in the cognitive profiles related to reading for individuals with SpLDs (McCloskey and Rapp, 2000).

Visual aids in the form of coloured acetate sheets to change the colour of the background against the written word are commonly used to aid the speed of reading (Vellutino, et al., 2004). Some individuals with dyslexia describe a blur or jumbled, even moving letters in front of them. Although it is not clear exactly why coloured acetate is helpful, for readers who find it effective, it is a very cost effective intervention. This intervention alone is unlikely to adequately support the needs of a child with dyslexia, and it is possible that even though reading speed may improve, corresponding comprehension rates may not increase, so it may not be effective for learning (Ritchie, Della Sala & McIntosh, 2011).

Bacon and Handley (2010) argue that regardless of the exact route, there is a difficulty with reading, which leads to a tendency to process and reason visually rather than linguistically. They identified visual processing differences in people with SpLDs, despite them not having a preference for visual reasoning. This indicates visual attention may account for performance, but not for the full extent of their reading difficulties, and therefore supports a dual route theory. Peyrin, et al. (2012) support this using neuro-imaging, identifying cases where both routes appear to cause issues. Reading difficulties can be classified as surface (visual), phonological, or mixed (Vellutino & Fletcher, 2005). Dual-route interaction is not fully understood, and is likely subject to individual differences (Olson, et al., 1999).

2.1.3 Writing difficulties

Although writing problems are included in the definition of dyslexia, surprisingly little research has been done into the processes behind this (Berninger, et al., 2008a). Writing problems are often described as two possible issues – problems with spelling, and problems with forming graphemes. Writing involves translating meaning into sequential sentences, and then breaking orthographic units into phonemes, and then graphemes, then finally transcribing them on paper as an orthographic form (Snowling, 1980). Writing difficulties are typically found with children who present with phonological impairments, and less with those with visual attention reading problems (Peyrin, et al., 2012). Although there are examples where attention and executive function result in poor writing quality and accuracy, these do not suggest specifically visual attention. Rather it is a general inability to plan and coordinate thoughts into sentences, or to coordinate transcription and review (Altemeier, Abbott & Berninger, 2008). Many people with SpLDs mis-spell words in a way that is inaccurate, but that may be recognised as similar to the

sound of the word when spoken aloud (Desroches, Joanisse & Robertson, 2005). Phonological processing theories explain this as two effects

a) that it inhibits accurate memory of lexical grapheme phoneme matching
b) secondary inhibition of grammar learning – which would typically be learnt inherently or naturally (Goswami, 2008a; Goswami, 2008b).

Writing performance difficulties differ considerably between languages (Blanken, Dorm & Sinn, 1997; Jiménez, Rodríguez & Ramírez, 2009). Alphabetic languages with consistent grapheme-phoneme matching, such as Italian, show significantly less spelling difficulties than English, which is much more irregular. Similarly in syllabic languages such as Hindi, there is also little or no spelling difficulty. Berninger, et al. (2008b) demonstrate the specific difficulty of phonological processes by attempting to remediate using traditional spelling and phonic techniques unsuccessfully.

Understanding the difficulties individuals with SpLDs can face with writing has led to the development of computer software that can scaffold writing and learning by recognising mistakes, and serving up help. Integrated tools that prompt, scaffold, or phonetically correct spelling mistakes mean that children can produce work of good quality based on their understanding rather than hampered by their difficulties. Some critics argue that children may become too reliant on the tool, and that the goal should be remediation; however it has been demonstrated that children with SpLDs may take longer to learn from this method (Montgomery & Marks, 2006). For some children with SpLDs, support interventions may prove less successful. For such children the use of technology can be useful. Dictation software allows these children to put their thoughts down in written form.

Some individuals have difficulties with physically writing – transcription. Challenges include forming letters on the page, remembering the form of letters, or being unable to match letter

shapes with letter sounds (Berninger & Wolf, 2009). Although writing may appear linear, i.e. – semantics -> phonology -> orthography -> transcription …. In fact semantic and orthographic transcription are directly related because the brain stores orthographic representations. Weakness here causes transcription difficulties, often called dysgraphia (Miceli & Capasso, 2006); a weakness in procedural memory for motor planning (Nicolson & Fawcett, 2011; Adi-Japha, et al., 2007). Writing difficulties can also occur with more generalised difficulties in motor coordination (fine or grand). Some individuals have difficulty holding a pen, or writing at a typical speed. Writing may be clumsy or irregularly sized or show extreme variation in style (Addy, 1998).

2.1.4 Organisation and Memory Difficulties

Most children with SpLDs experience some difficulty in time management or personal organisation (Kiziewicz & Biggs, 2007; Gibbs, Appleton & Appleton, 2007). Immature development of organisational skills or co-ordinating actions, responses or procedures is a strong indicator of SpLDs, and is something that teachers are trained to be aware of (Saffran & Estes, 2006). Executive functioning refers to a collection of cognitive abilities that include planning, inhibition, attentional control, and sequencing (Brosnan, et al., 2002). Children with SpLDs often demonstrate poor strategy formation, or incoherent planning. This is tested using psychological 'games', such as the Tower of Hanoi, but is also visible in the day to day activities in the classroom, such as clearing away work from one task before starting another (Kiziewicz & Biggs, 2007). There are several processes involved in both tasks, and the specific interaction between them is not clearly understood.

Inhibition is 'stressed to breaking point' by tasks that are especially taxing on working memory (Pennington, et al., 1996). Working memory resource appears to be an integral part of executive functioning (Brosnan, et al., 2002). Neurological studies indicate abnormal prefrontal cortex

symmetry in some individuals with SpLDs - the area of the brain that controls inhibition. Inhibition can also be understood in terms of control, motivation and personality (Sutton & Davidson, 1997; Nigg, 2000). There is insufficient evidence of whether individuals not identified with SpLDs may also have inhibition difficulties.

The processing of information about sequence also requires the related ability to process magnitude, or identify difference in spectrum, etc. (Cohen Kadosh & Walsh, 2008). Sequencing is an essential part of task organisation, and sequential information is typically part of executive functioning (Peters, Barnett & Henderson, 2001). Some individuals with SpLDs have a particular hindrance in organising size, colour, and other related properties that can be sorted in a scalier fashion (Tressoldi, Rosati & Lucangeli, 2007). A lack of neurocognitive specialisation for magnitude and numerosity is distinct, but may impact several other abilities including organising written work.

Contrary to traditional models of memory (i.e. Atkinson & Shiffrin, 1968), there is consensus in the literature that memory is not simply storage distinct from cognitive processing (Anderson, 2000). The phonological loop is a cognitive process identified by Baddeley and Hitch (1974). The 'loop' refers to its theoretical construction existing as both a short term store, and a system of sub-vocal rehearsal (Murray, 1968). People name and sub-vocally rehearse visual information as well as auditory input. The modality of information changes, so difficulties result in globally poor working memory. Jeffries and Everatt (2004) suggest that in visual spatial memory tasks some individuals with SpLDs do not show a specific impairment. Smith-Spark and Fisk (2007) suggest that working memory problems can affect visual spatial memory tasks, indicating that those with SpLDs may not be able to compensate for some reduced working memory (Alloway, 2006).

Al-Wabil, et al. (2010) explain that memory problems impair learning by association, and produce poor achievement in gameplay where identification or naming is required. These reveal issues

with long term memory as well, which is fundamental to typical early stage education, and explains why rote learning methods pose considerable challenges (Collinson & Barden, 2016; Wray, et al., 2008). Working memory as a single construct may be a fallacy (Alloway, Gathercole & Pickering, 2006; Berninger, et al., 2006). Some individuals show specific weaknesses in memory related to different types of information processing. This supports studies that purport SpLDs represent different learning styles, and that traditional modalities of learning are the real problem (Mortimore, 2008).

Some inclusive learning style strategies give children choice of how to approach and present work. Often this involves teachers producing alternative worksheets or using learning methods that don't involve writing. Truly inclusive learning style strategies are still rare in the UK, with few schools able to offer teaching and assessment that appeals to multiple learning styles. Technology such as tablet computers can aid in delivering inclusive learning style teaching because access to multimedia information can be automated (Tutty, White & Pascoe, 2005; Gasparini & Culén, 2012). Learning can become task oriented, rather than learning modality orientated.

2.1.5 Mathematical Difficulties

Impaired mathematical abilities are often referred to as dyscalculia; however there is disagreement over how this term relates to other SpLDs. Some literature indicates that dyscalculia is a specific type of dyslexia, and that symbol processing is a central factor (Rips, Bloomfield and Asmuth, 2005; Cohen Kadosh & Walsh, 2008). Contrastingly Trott (2011) identifies impaired mathematical abilities as a distinct difficulty. Supporting studies in both camps identify variation and sub-specific difficulties with aspects of mathematical processing (Skagerlund & Träff, 2016; Chinn, 2003). Other studies have involved discerning the distinct

functional weaknesses involved in dyscalculia (Landerl, et al., 2009; Butterworth, 2004). Munro (2003) identifies multiple subtypes including magnitude processing, numerical reasoning and number fact knowledge, and calculation processing difficulties (von Aster & Shalev, 2007). Mazzocco, Feigenson and Halberda (2011) also identify that some individuals with SpLDs struggle with number approximation. They claim this is the central explanation for other mathematical problems because the process of calculation may originate with approximation. This is supported by Feigenson, Libertus, Odic and Halberda (2013) who conclude that the human ability to approximate number or quantity / magnitude is an evolved skill that is also possessed by animals as well.

Neurological atypicalities associated with a dyscalculia diagnoses show variation and a lack consensus (Kaufman, et al., 2009). Domain specific theory identifies a region of the brain which is involved in processing only numerical / numerical symbolic ordinality or quantity (Mussolin, et al., 2009). Dyscalculia is recognised to be a composite numerical cognitive disablement. The size and morphology of the grey matter is atypical in the pathway significant in numerical working memory (Price & Ansari, 2013).

The alternative theory explains dyscalculia as domain general brain condition – i.e. it affects regions of the brain that are not involved in processing specifically numerical information, but rather regions of the brain the show activation when *any* ordinal processing occurs (Price, Holloway, Räsänen, Vesterinen & Ansari, 2007). This theory implicates the intraparietal sulcus, but identifies typical activation in this area of the brain during domain general ordinality. Atypically morphology and increased activation in surrounding brain regions suggests that ordinality facts are not memorised. For mathematical ordinality this presents as atypically large effort in processing large numbers, where number fact would typically be memorised and applied without the need for mathematical manipulation.

Mathematic skill development in children has a broad central tendency, leading to considerable variation in attainment (Martens, et al., 2011). Karande, et al. (2005) suggests that impaired mathematical ability may not represent an SpLD because of the impact of mitigating educational structures. This is supported by Gillum (2012) who questions the broadness of the definition of dyscalculia.

Butterworth, Varma and Laurillard (2011) identify that mathematics education is largely conducted in a linear and initially rote fashion, with supporting methods including visual and physical forms to support children having difficulties. They argue that none of these approaches acknowledge the wisdom of the neurological studies, and that instead interventions that strengthen association and meaning with numbers would be more successful. Interventions to support dyscalculia using ICT have also shown significant improvement in trials (Wilson, et al., 2006; Amiripour, et al., 2011). Many individuals with SpLDs also had very strong mathematic ability, which strongly supports the construct of SpLDs as specific deficits (Al-Hroub & Whitebread, 2008; Francis-Williams, 2014).

21.6 Physical Activity

Difficulties with physical activity can affect a child's posture, their ability to coordinate physical tasks together, their spatial orientation skills, and their ability to do precise tasks with the hands (fine motor skill) (Dewey, 1995). Physical activity difficulties may lead to embarrassment for children and lead to disengagement from social and educational activities. This can occur where there is an unusual gait or style of running and atypical activity of the facial muscles (Brown, 2004). Some or all of these traits combined are often described as dyspraxia. Coordination of concurrent tasks has been shown to be particularly compromised in some children with SpLDs

(Cherng, et al., 2009). Similarly difficulty with control of posture leads children to be prone to falling or tripping (Fong, Tsang & Ng, 2012).

For individuals with SpLDs these issues are the result of interruptions in motor-imagery processing – visual spatial information does not translate into appropriately guided motor expression (Deconinck, Spitaels, Fias & Lenoir, 2009). Children with these difficulties have reduced capabilities in mental exercises involving spatial manipulation, or planning motor tasks. Where children are not able to manipulate visual representations accurately, they struggle to correctly utilise visual sensory input that drives motor expression.

Neuroscience literature does not support the definition of dyspraxia as a single diagnosis or condition, but rather that diverse difficulties with both motor involved events, and non-motor involved events cause complex compensatory plasticities (de Castelnau, et al., 2008; Zwicker, et al., 2011). Cognitive effects are extremely pervasive, having an effect on the conception, organisation, and performance of almost all actions and interactions. The non-motor element of dyspraxia research suggests atypicality of the attention control network system (Querne, et al., 2008). The motor element of dyspraxia affects the ability to coordinate spatially and physically (Zwicker, et al., 2011). The meta-motor coordination systems involved in visual spatial planning show atypically low levels of activation. Variation occurs within the neurological atypicality, and for some persons identified as having dyspraxia plasticity may compensate more effectively than for others.

The sequencing of tasks that are automated or becoming automated is an integrative process, which eventually involves several tasks becoming combined and automated (Bundy, et al., 2002). The ‘automatization deficit’ hypothesis suggests that difficulties coordinating concurrent tasks occur because to sequence or combine the tasks, the attentional focus of mental manipulation should be focussed on only one, but that the other task should have been automated already

making integration possible (Visser, 2003). Vaivre-Douret, et al. (2011) suggest that there are at least two common patterns of dyspraxia – 'pure', and 'mixed', which represent two quite separate learning support needs (Wilson, et al., 2009).

Research suggests that the social construction of physical and mental disabilities differs considerably (Rapley, 2004). Physical disabilities may elicit different evaluations of need or social engagement. Furthermore adults and children are known to react to physical and mental disabilities in different ways (Watson, et al., 2000). The construction of identities and differences is unique in some way to each community, and every school has the capacity to facilitate supportive and nurturing discourse among children with regards difference that may be regarding as disablement (Cameron & Rutland, 2006). Although dyspraxia is difficulty with mental representations, it often appears as a physical weakness. Kirby (2004) suggests that a social panic has led to the over-diagnosis of dyspraxia, and that the label itself is a significant cause of the problems that arise from it. Often the greatest support need for children labelled as dyspraxic is social and emotional, where they experience low self-esteem, or bullying from others. The impact that schools and teachers have can be managed by promoting parity of neurodiversities, and particularly creating environments where competition is reduced (Drew & Atter, 2008). This is because children with dyspraxia are at fundamental disadvantage in terms of the social comparisons of their peers, given their focus of attention at their developmental stage.

2.2 Constructions and Representations of SpLDs

In the majority of the literature SpLDs are referred to as developmental conditions – i.e. those that a child is born with or that develop naturally. If a child naturally develops specific difficulties one implication is a genetic origin. Genetic theories for SpLDs are common in the literature (Gabrieli, 2009; Molko, et al., 2003; Fischer & DeFries, 2002). High rates of heritability (40-60%) are commonly cited as evidence (Brunswick, 2009). Genetic theory does not offer many solutions for intervention, however understanding that SpLDs affect inter-generationally may.

A family of artists may appear to share a genetic component that grants them naturally creative skills. Upon closer inspection one realises that in order to be an artist one needs more than just one skill, and likely considerable training and encouragement. Creative skills *do* in fact have a genetic component (Moore, et al., 2009; Ukkola-Vuoti, et al., 2013; Kraus, et al., 2014), and that nurturing these skills assisted. If a child has poor artistic ability though, it is unlikely they will be labelled as 'dys-arty'. Kiziewicz and Biggs (2007) explain that in education and academia, writing output is used as a 'transparent medium of representation'. This assumes that writing is the only form of communication, and yet numerous skilled jobs do not require essay writing or good spelling. The aptitudes for numerous skilled professions are typically stronger with individuals identified as having dyslexia, including computer programming, musical composition, and architecture. None-the-less, the discourse of SpLDs is predominated in terms of being held back, with no appreciation for the merits of neurodiversity.

Melekian (1990) found that paternal financial income and educational background was among the highest predictors of dyslexia, whilst the mother's status in these dimensions was an 'aggravating factor'. The clear implication that social class and home life is reinforced by supporting evidence that family structure and size has an impact. Pumfrey and Reason (1991) and Presland (1991) challenge the medical model of dyslexia altogether, and instead argued that

it emerged from social environments, or was a weak and indefinable phenomenon. Ferguson (2008, p. 245) suggests that assertions about the broad nature of SpLDs, and some of the inclusive adjustments that have been proposed in research literature, are a significant challenge to established intelligentsia, and the justification of the economic superiority that many have achieved.

Several studies explore the experience of people with dyslexia, particularly the suffering associated with the learning difficulty – often at the hand of educators who rejected their problems, and labelled them as lazy or stupid (Edwards, 1995; Riddick, 1995; Bender & Wall, 1994). The attitudes of teachers have been markedly behind the scientific evidence. It is recognised that:

a) training for teachers was inadequate, and that this lead to negative attitudes towards pupils (Gwernan-Jones & Burden, 2010; Duranovic, Dedeic, Huseinbasic & Tinjic, 2011)
b) these negative attitudes were stronger predictors of the success of the pupils than the child's own ability (Hornstra, et al., 2010)

In some countries where teachers are not trained about the needs of SpLD learners, teachers are found to neglect weaker pupils, or to suggest attitude and academic engagement are the fault of the learner (Duranovic, Dedeic, Huseinbasic & Tinjic, 2011). Most common was the attitude from teachers that children with SpLDs were 'immature' or 'low ability', rather than recognition that dyslexia was specific, or could be overcome with interventions. Recent UK studies suggest that some newly qualified teachers do not have the level of knowledge necessary to teach in an inclusive fashion (Washburn, et al., 2016; Gwernan-Jones & Burden, 2010), or that teachers may still hold on to old attitudinal prejudices about laziness in learning because of the lack of resources and time constraints on providing the support or encouragement that pupils feel they need (Gibson & Kendall, 2010).

MacDonald (2009) critically assesses the arguments around dyslexia and social class. Although MacDonald does not suggest that dyslexia is a product of the social behaviours of the lower classes, often in relative poverty, he builds much of his argument on the premise of statistics that demonstrate the extremely high prevalence of children from lower class backgrounds who have related troubles in school. As William James famously said (Rice, 2006):

"We must be careful not to confuse data with the abstractions we use to analyse them"

Perhaps nothing could be truer of the social attitude to publically released statistics about dyslexia?

Croll (2010) Croll suggests that social class is a larger barrier to educational exclusion than learning difficulties, and that the government might be able to improve this issue by targeting funding at social issues, rather than special educational needs budgets. Croll's study refers to generational poverty and excluded communities. Although these findings are both statistically supported, and represent the views and opinions of the community, this judgement does not address the genetic heritability of SpLDs. With SpLDs unrecognised until more recent years, help and support may have left communities 'intellectually impoverished' (Connor, 2011).

MacDonald (2009) identifies that there is a significant gap in the conceptual framework of dyslexia in society. There is a lacking academic frame of knowledge about adult dyslexia, and therefore a lacking critical lifelong perspective about the experiences of SpLDs. The *experiences* of children have historically been largely absent in sociology. Instead children's perspectives are managed within the separate study of pedagogy or they become clinicized (Sommer, Samuelsson & Hundeide, 2010; MacDonald, 2009). Despite scientific evidence, the debate on whether SpLDs (specifically dyslexia) exists goes on (Elliot & Gibbs, 2008). This may be due to the fact that the experience of being dyslexic has only more recently been produced as a recognisable social narrative.

The heritability of SpLDs creates intergenerational subcultures around dyslexia that are tightly interconnected with issues such as relative poverty and barriers to class mobility (MacDonald, 2009). Dyslexia has inherited some of the social stigma inherent to lower class families, including laziness, poor parenting, and other attributable 'choices'. However not all negative attributions of dyslexia relate to the working classes. The Daily Mail published an article suggesting that dyslexia was an excuse used by middle classes parents to avoid their children being labelled as underachieving (Camber, 2007). Although the article was recognised as being highly controversial, this negative attitude from the press colours realms of accessible knowledge for some lay groups. Attaching a discourse of stupidity and underachievement to dyslexia affects public opinion, and also affects social role values held by those with SpLDs about themselves (Boxall, Carson & Docherty, 2004).

MacDonald (2010) encourages increased research into the life stories of dyslexics, and for an approach that increases public understanding. MacDonald suggests that discrimination and negative discourse would have equal if not more negative impact on individuals without the dyslexia label, but that the way in which the dyslexia label is used is very significant. For many children or adults, being diagnosed as dyslexic can be relieving, reassuring, and enabling because they may feel more accepted, or gain a greater understanding of their own situation and experiences (Dale & Taylor, 2001; McNulty, 2003). To persons who are knowledgeable about dyslexia, the diagnosis can also have positive implications that integrating with broadens the positive aspects of self-description viewed from a postmodern perspective.

Progressive improvements in the 'dyslexia friendly schools' movement, 'positive about dyslexia', and other challenges to ignorant conceptions about dyslexia and SpLDs are helping to improve the social representation; however there is strong evidence that institutional practices still have a negative impact on pupil self-concept (Armstrong, 2014). Educational institutions need to

target the wellbeing and social competence of pupils with SpLDs so that they can become their own advocates in the social construction of SpLDs. Reliance on 'experts' to present and lobby on their behalf is unnecessarily disabling. Higher education institutions in the UK have led the way by establishing free assessment and support to break down the barriers to accessing a degree course (Soler, Fletcher-Campbell & Reid, 2009). Sadly this action has also sparked criticism in the media suggesting that people are claiming that young dyslexic adults are 'faking it' to get free equipment or resources (Ryder & Norwich, 2018), creating a discourse of illegitimacy and discrimination that would be unacceptable with any other disability.

Although it can be challenging to get children to think positively about diversity, early and consistent intervention and teaching that promotes it has been proven to have a positive effect (Ashburn & Snow, 2011). Educating children about learning styles and educational diversity can enhance the learning of all children. Children with SpLDs are sometimes characterised as 'right-brain' thinking. In analogous terms this means that individuals with SpLDs are likely not only to compensate for their left hemispheric weakness, but actually excel at the right brain performances - because the left hemisphere is not impeding it (which is typical) (Von Károlyi, et al., 2003; Silverman, 2009). The right brain is associated with creative and lateral capacities. Many people with SpLDs have strong creative skills, or are able to comprehend mechanical or reasoning tasks in ways that are perceived as superior to typical individuals (Eide & Eide, 2011). Dyslexics may benefit from 'thinking outside the box', and process information holistically (Davis & Braun, 2010). Arguably the structure of traditional teaching paradigms supress or ignore these skillsets.

The social and educational paradigms and practical approaches to access disadvantage have changed extensively within the last 50 years. The approach to SpLDs has diversified away from much of the social fabric of other disability labels, and has been engaged with in many schools in

a progressive manner (for instance in the UK where it is a legal requirement) for a number of years. SpLDs have received considerable attention in society and in education, however there is still a noticeable disparity in attitudes that indicates that practices within school are not recognising and appraising this diversity in a way that stops discrimination, nor that encourages progressive practices beyond the education environment (Goswami, 2008a; Goswami, 2008b).

2.3 Intervention and Inclusion

For many years dyslexia and other SpLDs were disregarded by policy makers, and funding and resources were marginalised. Since 2009 the UK government have improved the support available to children and adults with SpLDs, showing full support to the scientific evidence that SpLDs exist (Goswami, 2008a; Goswami, 2008b). Today in mainstream schools in the UK special interventions to develop reading and writing, mathematics, and other skills are common. A progressive movement in making educational interventions inclusive is also gaining support, however challenges emerge between the goals of the set curricula, and the resources and methods available to do this. This 'work in progress' has various success rates (Department for Children, Schools and Families, 2008; Norwich & Kelly, 2010).

2.3.1 Exclusion in Present Day Education

In typical mainstream schools in the UK children with SpLDs experience exclusion from daily activities. Exclusion may be 'for the good of others' or 'for the pupil's own good'. The latter may refer to removal from modern foreign language lessons to allow for extra specialised tuition, or removal from some physical education, in favour of preferred subjects to avoid social embarrassment (Avramidis, Lawson & Norwich, 2010; Lindsay, 2003). OFSTED and other parties have expressed concern over pupil's curricula becoming narrowed as a result of SpLDs, however it is recognised as necessary where accommodations that lead to positive attainment cannot be met within the classroom (OFSTED, 2001a; OFSTED, 2001b).

Porter and Lacey (1999) identified that different schools approach the narrowing of curricula for SpLD pupils differently. Some cut into core academic subjects that SpLD students struggle with to provide alternative tuition, whilst other schools cut less academic subjects like art, drama,

physical education or after school leisure time. Both strategies may have pitfalls, and both of these exclusionary provisions highlight these pupils as different. When children with SpLDs miss out on subjects they may excel at, like art or drama, they are not experiencing 'being good' at anything. This may lead to low self-esteem and motivation (Glazzard, 2010; Chanock, 2007). Inclusive principles advise that difference in educational ability needs to be celebrated not excluded, because it becomes reflected in how they feel (Terzi, 2005).

Specialist schools for SpLDs and other Special Educational Needs and Disabilities (SEND) pupils receive mixed review. Functionally their purpose is to remediate children, or to support them in education in the best way that is appropriate to their level of academic and other potential (Sylwester & Moursund, 2012). A study by West (2007) showed that the majority of pupils with SpLDs in state funded specialist units were from lower income backgrounds. There is concern that once a pupil has entered a specialist unit that there are insufficient pathways to attaining in order to return to mainstreaming. Kearney suggests they are marginalising children with SpLDs into a unit for 'the good of others' (2011).

Current available interventions for SpLDs differ drastically between educational establishments. Some more specialised support is available from private schools, where many parents cannot afford to send their children. Funding in the state sector also differs considerably between counties (Lamb, Roberts & Mackinder, 2012), and increasingly so with specialisations within academy chains (Norwich & Black, 2015). There is also huge variation in the way that schools choose to use their budgets, including how an SEN budget can be used. Children whose school is more able to provide provision of support in one area (or better provision overall) are able to improve the education for children with SpLDs, research suggests (Robertson, 2012). Accommodating mixed learning styles delivered by experienced and enthusiastic teachers, a good compliment of teaching assistants, a SEN resource centre, strong pastoral support network,

and inclusive teaching policies, are just some of the things that may benefit children with SpLDs (Stewart, 2010). Inclusive models used in some schools provide this mixed resource to benefit all, but many schools still ring-fence funding that leads to exclusionary support being provided.

2.3.2 Changing Practices for SpLD Needs

Nearly 1 in 5 children may experience difficulty with reading or mathematics during their school years, and that historically such children have been at risk of being excluded from educational opportunities (Bruck, Genesee & Caravolas, 1997; Alloway, 2006). Exclusion from educational engagement has serious implications for social and emotional development, as well as academic attainment (Ingesson, 2007). Children with SpLDs may be particularly vulnerable due to stigmatism and labelling from peers where teaching practices segregate them for learning (Norwich & Kelly, 2010; Dagnan & Sandhu, 1999); however stigma can also occur where children with SpLDs learn alongside their peers in integrated environments (Tapasak & Walter-Thomas, 1999; McLellan, et al., 2012; Holopainen, et al., 2012). Although full-inclusion would seem an appropriate antidote, Lindsay (2003) argues that current inclusive practices create an environment that lacks appropriate motivation and challenge, and that is not reflective of opportunities beyond the classroom. Children with SpLDs are not enabled to do more, because they have been disabled and deskilled to do less. Eligson and Traustadottir (2009) support this statement by acknowledging that inclusive support within the classroom can create a level of dependency upon it. Whilst their study is focussed on children with physical disability, it none the less describes a route of dependency that sets children with any disability / difficulty to fare poorly in dealing with real-world situations.

Understanding full-inclusion perhaps requires some imagination, as there are few practical examples. Inclusive practices are idealised because they arise from a critical analysis of the social

and societal impacts of practice, and aim to reshape institutional concepts that could be damaging (Kavale, 2002). This value based approach is critical of the rational pragmatic conceptions that came before it, that may have led to increased segregation of individuals, and elimination of core ethical boundaries being overlooked (Lashley, 2007). Common approaches focus on addressing learning needs, without holding individuals back because of specific difficulties. Lindsay (2007) argues that inclusive teaching and attitudes within school are currently not helping the widely imagined target audience. Sourcing several studies meta-analytically (Sebba & Sachdev, 1997; Madden & Slavin, 1983; Hegarty, 1993; Baker, Wang & Walberg, 1994; Tilstone, Florian & Rose, 1998), Lindsay (2007) argues that reviews are not positive about the quantifiable outcomes from inclusive practice, and that there is in fact a lack of consensus in the literature about what aims or measures there are of inclusive practice. This may be explained by a lack of a central pedagogy in the UK. Inclusive practices would benefit children, allowing them to succeed alongside their peers, and gain positive self-concept (Bond & Castagnera, 2006; Humphrey, 2004).

Inclusive teaching is more than just a set of methods – it is an ideology (Florian, 2008), and such an ideological shift takes time to adjust to. Despite inclusion being used synonymously with effectiveness and quality, and being heralded globally as a positive revolution in the orientation of educators (Miles, 2000; Booth & Ainscow, 2011; Riddell, 2007), critics appear laboured by a discourse of 'ab-normal' that seems hard to shake (Graham & Slee, 2006; Richardson & Powell, 2011). There is a need to not only support progressive teaching methodology, but to embrace a broader range of education research 'facts' in order exemplify the contribution of inclusive teaching to individuals and society, as opposed to rigid quantitative statistics to monitor progress (Florian, 2008; Eisenhart & Towne, 2003; Ferri, 2012).

SpLD interventions are typically cognitively based, based on the identification of learning styles, or perceptual / processing weaknesses (Piombo, et al., 2003; Exley, 2003). There is no correct approach set in stone for teaching children or adults with SpLD, despite many years of research and practice (Vellutino, et al., 2004; Brooks, 2002). There are numerous intervention programmes and recent developments based on integrations of these and other methods that are always evolving.

Phonological skills development is both a key classroom intervention that is used in both primary and secondary education, and a method that has been integrated into numerous inclusive curriculum programs for children with SpLDs (Sawyer, 2006). Teaching specific instructions that are a systematic and explicit means to decoding phonics allows pupils to learn to read more age typically (Sawyer, 2006; Simpson, 2000). Snowling (1998) however argues that for children with multiple SpLD diagnoses, procedural learning may be considerably more difficult, reducing success. Combination theories of dyslexia have criticised phonic skill development for not recognising all the cognitive profiles associated with dyslexia (Smith, 2001; Eden & Moats, 2002).

Exclusionary provisions for children with SpLDs to receive intensive remedial instruction are common in the UK. Small class sizes (often around 5) learn whole subjects together, so that their needs in each subject and task can be attended (Alexander-Passe, 2007; Freeman & Alkin, 2000). This approach has negative social and emotional consequences, and limits opportunity for normal integration. It is therefore more commonly used with those pupils whose level of need could not be met within the mainstream classroom. Adaptations of this method that allow children to use ICT can facilitate this approach into inclusive classroom learning.

Multisensory techniques were developed experimentally in the 1970s, where the most established methodology is the Orton-Gillingham technique (Chia, 2006). This method is largely focussed on supporting language related difficulties; however its theoretical underpinnings have

the potential to work with any SpLD (Gillingham & Stillman, 1997; Chia, 2006). The alphabet, reading and writing, and common grammatical tasks are instructed by the presentation of two or more versions of the information. This could include pictorial representations, physical geometric puzzles, or other adapted techniques. The method is designed to simulate the way brains solve real world problems, and improve links between different problem solving strategies. Reading and writing consist of several tasks themselves, and that these different aspects are equally problems to be solved (Smith, 2001). Multisensory approaches have been praised for their ability to be additional methods, rather than replacement ones, and the success of short interventions.

Pavey (2007) suggests that beyond a 'catch-all' inclusive approach, a general positive ethos and increased awareness is central for both staff and pupils in dyslexia friendly schools. Creativity and alternative presentation and ideas are praised and welcomed, and children are invited to participate in their own learning model (this is considered important as children with SpLDs can feel disempowered in a typical educational setting). The use of ICT resources is common in dyslexia friendly schools, and these learning resources are made open to non-SpLD pupils as well. Compared with other schools, pupils with SpLDs from dyslexia friendly schools typically rate their wellbeing as better, and particularly their enjoyment of school (Humphrey & Mullins, 2002b; Stewart, 2010). Despite the positive and progressive tone, dyslexia friendly approaches do have challenges from some schools in the UK, and from some proponents of the inclusion agenda (Florian, 2014)

2.3.3 Inclusive Values and Barriers to inclusion

Inclusive education is both ideological and methodological, and therefore both institutions and individuals need to be assessed (Ainscow, Booth & Dyson, 2006; Florian & Linklater, 2010). In order to critically and constructively develop classrooms and teaching, it is first necessary to

distinguish between inclusive pedagogy, inclusive education and inclusive practice (Florian & Black-Hawkins, 2010). Florian and Black-Hawkins suggest that pedagogy is what we design, practice is what happens, and the education is what results in the context of the school. Inclusion ideology and action needs to be supported at multiple levels, in order to deliver an inclusive education.

'Inclusive education' is rife with numerous, sometimes conflicting, interpretations (Florian, 2014; Kozleski, Artiles, & Waitoller, 2011). Common to most arguments is the belief that schools should provide for all children in the same locality, regardless of learning needs, disabilities, social, religious, cultural, or other differences (Florian, 2008). Booth and Ainscow (2011) suggest that this should be achieved in a 'whole school' development approach, however many schools in the UK and abroad practice support interventions that differentiate students with different needs (Florian & Spratt, 2013). Some critiques of progressive approaches to inclusion note that (Florian & Linklater, 2010, p. 371):

> *"As the concept of 'inclusive education' has gained currency, students who would previously have been referred to specialist forms of provision, having been judged 'less able', are now believed to belong in mainstream classrooms"*

Other authors argue that this use of language does not address to values of inclusion (Corbett, 2013, p. 2). Booth and Ainscow (2011) state that core values define the language that guides inclusive education. They draw upon a social model of disability as an alternative to the language of special educational needs, and highlight the benefits of diversity. Education as a right for all means everyone having access to the education that is right for them (McLeskey, et al., 2014). This requires including cultural, religious, ethnic, gender, and other differences as part of a mobilised school community which critically responds to meet varying need on an ongoing basis (Booth & Ainscow, 2011).

Raffo and Gunter (2008, p. 403) highlight that functional inclusion of cultures and willingness to incorporate diverse values, may not amount to inclusion. It is necessary for diverse groups to become empowered to drive change themselves. One approach to this in schools is participatory action research (DePoy & Gilmer, 2000). Students labelled as having special educational needs, or other disabilities (including autism spectrum disorder) create a challenge for schools that aim to achieve full inclusion because teachers apply their knowledge of a labelled condition, rather than learning the needs of individuals (Hodge, 2016). Critics argue that attempts to transform education towards 'disabled' standards undermine fundamental principles of education (Kaufman, Ward & Badar, 2015).Putting into practice ideology, policy, and even direct practical training can present challenges for teachers where contradictions may appear, or where teachers lack the experience, knowledge or time to engage in critical pedagogy (Gabel, 2002). There is much debate about the most effective routes for change, and the appropriate vehicles to articulate actions that support the development of individual practice (Florian & Black-Hawkins, 2010). Developing the specifics of inclusive practices requires inside knowledge of the barriers that learners encounter, and the approaches to overcome these (Ainscow, Booth & Dyson, 2006). Some attempts to develop and practice inclusive education have poorly grasped the technicality of the art, despite strong ideological engagement and will.

Different pedagogies influence teachers and change interaction with students, indifferent ways. Teachers' relationships with individual students affect their ability to be 'inclusive' of them, because, the critical inclusive pedagog needs to be aware of individual students learning needs, and not just see them as a disability label (Booth & Ainscow, 2011; Hodge, 2016; Moncrieffe & Eyben, 2013). Students need also to be included in terms of other aspects of their diversity or identity, including having an active participatory voice. Mead (2011) explores trends in teacher pedagogies and attitudes in relation to the "Every Child Matters" maxim. They identify that more

inclusive teaching is developed where there are more organic relationships[1] between teacher professional roles and social justice values. Student wellbeing, whole school or community principles, and specific pastoral emphasis are organically related to how well teachers personally know each of their students. Beck (2012) argues that increasing standardisation, marketization, and scientific perspectives on education have led to reduced organic connection between schools and communities, and thus community centric values have been lost. This

> *"drift to Gesellschaft"*

encourages performative teaching practices, because bureaucratisation minimises individual interpretation and even ethical choice in the classroom (Ball, 2003). Different dimensions of support need, cultural, or other *could-be* included attributes of individual students, including vulnerabilities, can become excluded (Alexander, Anderson & Gallegos, 2004). Pedagogies of targets and standardised testing may struggle to be inclusive (Florian, Black-Hawkins & Rouse, 2016). However any pedagogy that is not critically reflective can become performative with even supportive language (Mulcahy, 2011, p. 98).

The processes by which teachers in training or newly qualified teachers acquire and develop their pedagogical approach(es) can vary dramatically (Loughran & Russell, 2000). As previously mentioned there is no dominant pedagogy in the UK, and as such different institutions teach different practices. Studies have demonstrated significant differences in subject specific and general pedagogical understanding and practice between different cohorts of newly qualified teachers.

Changes in pedagogy that result from changes in ideological thinking do not develop from an innocent start point of idealisms around educational values (Shkedi & Laron, 2004), but rather

[1] Organic relationships are characterised by "*a blend of commonsense, intuitive, tacit and narrative language*" (Mead, 2011)

have to develop from existing, sometimes established pragmatic conceptions and experience of practice. The inception of inclusive pedagogy is therefore hampered by an unknown landscape of established teaching pedagogy and practice. A critical constructivist view of the development of inclusive pedagogy recognises that institutional, social, individual, and theoretical barriers exist to achieving inclusive practice (Gabel, 2002; Florian & Spratt, 2013). Overcoming these obstacles requires support and commitment at multiple levels.

Teaching staff may be under prepared for the challenges they face, including both newly qualified teachers and older teachers who have developed an established approach. Special education needs coordinators (SENCOs) report a heavy workload, and are typically involved in large amounts of staff development as teachers are not sourcing enough relevant training (Cole, 2005). Teachers just leaving university express feeling apprehensive about teaching children with SpLDs (Winter, 2006). Winters study recommends teacher training be adapted to include more training on inclusion in a way that is integrated with general learning.

Inclusive teaching does not involve mainstreaming all students so that practitioners can ignore their responsibility to supporting the learning needs of students (Florian, & Linklater, 2010). Whether support diagnoses or labels are useful is debatable (Hodge, 2016), but also should not be the primary focus. Practices which accommodate researched difficulties faced by some learners should be accommodated into the teaching for all learners (Florian & Spratt, 2013). This 'good' rather than 'special', teaching practice inherently promotes to benefits of neurodiversity and social diversity (Kiziewicz & Biggs, 2007; Booth & Ainscow, 2011). Furthermore it challenges the arguments of some teachers who argue that they are not equipped or skilled to teach students with special educational needs or different learning support needs (Florian, & Linklater, 2010).

School principals hold an important role, not only as authorities within the school, but in facilitating an environment in which inclusive practices can occur through practice and critical administration (Riehl, 2000). Riehl however questions whether principals have the capacity to be critical or reflective because of their established position of power. Rather than problematizing poor practice, institutional constraints may be more likely to problematize the processes of experimentation and change inherent in critical pedagogical shift. School principals already manage / accommodate the professional development of teaching staff, however not all change in this way is democratically or freely enabled, but instead is extended from the leading direction of the principal (Anderson, 1990; Wahlstrom & Louis, 2008). Blase and Blase (1999) however point out that this can be a positive thing, where some teachers are resistant to change in practice and pedagogy from traditional approaches.

The attitudes of teachers are of paramount importance in creating and delivering inclusive education (MacFarlane & Woolfson, 2013). Teachers hold the pedagogical experience and knowledge that is required to implement inclusive practice through a process of analytical adaption and integration. This requires an on-going critical inquiry of a teacher's own methods that requires effort even beyond the pursuit of professional development, and so can be a significant effort for teachers who may already feel that their workload is heavy. Avramidis and Norwich (2002) suggest that teacher attitudes towards inclusion are influenced by the nature or severity of disabling conditions, and very rarely supported full inclusion[2]. Critics of full inclusion argue that it is impractical and has never actually been tried (Kaufman, Ward & Badar, 2015; Richardson & Powell, 2011). This indicates that teaching staff make pragmatic judgements about

[2] Full inclusion refers to a peak goal of realised inclusive education (UN, 2006); however the term is used contradictorily. Armstrong, Armstrong and Spandagou (2011) suggest that 'effective individualized support measures' are consistent with full inclusion, while Fuchs and Fuchs (1998) argue that full inclusion involves not having specialised services or placements for specific individuals.

the ‘costs’ of trying to practice inclusively, and evaluate many required accommodations to be unmanageable.

MacFarlane and Woolfson (2013) identify that established ideas and practices and teaching are highly regarded, but that active resistance to inclusion can often come from more experienced teachers – particularly where social, emotional and behavioural issues were concerned. This negative view of the experience of practicing inclusively is clearly a barrier to further developments. The impact of additional training for both in-service teachers (MacFarlane & Woolfson, 2013) and pre-service teachers (Swain, Nordness & Leader-Janssen, 2012) in inclusive principles and practice has demonstrated the positive impact this can have in making teachers feel more positive about inclusion. Positivity about inclusion is seemingly directly related to how prepared teachers feel. Teaching staff may not always be aware of their prejudicial practices (often due to a lack of training), or lack of understanding of their wider impact.

Teaching staff have been shown to be more favourable to inclusive practices where they are supported by additional staff (Avramidis & Norwich, 2002; Florian & Black-Hawkins, 2010). Eligson and Traustadottir (2009) warn that conflicting attitudes in teachers can emerge when specific students are supported in the classroom by an assistant. This can lead teachers to be dismissive about their responsibility to those students, and can lead students to become dependent on the support. Barriers in financing inclusive practices may be to blame for continued distinctions and exclusionary responsibilities (MacBeath, et al., 2006; Talmor, Reiter & Feigin, 2005). Changes in the UK education system with increasing numbers of academy schools come with associated networks with political influence (Purcell, 2011). These governing school networks have the capacity to distribute a new discourse for the goals of educational institutions and for individuals; however there is some concern whether they will convey an adequate message of inclusion (Heilbronn, 2016; Perraudin, 2016).

The core question posed is a transformative one – 'How do we go from an inclusive pedagogy to practice?' (Florian & Black-Hawkins, 2010), the path remains mired by the question 'how can inclusive practitioners promote social justice around inclusion?'. The bold suggestion by Florian and Linklater (2010) is to try! Florian and Linklater purport that fear of diverting from established safe boundaries keeps teachers and students from succeeding, and that where they have experimented, they have been positively surprised. Florian and Linklater stress that the experimentation is not random, and that the process of establishing new practice is closely guided by critical inquiry. A critical pedagogy, as described by Giroux (2010) is guided by principles that help students to develop a 'consciousness of freedom'. Although criticised by some as a Marxist philosophy, the goal to liberate individuals from institutional and established categorical barriers, and enable individual and progressive approaches to education is becoming part of the propaganda of the establishment (Florian & Black-Hawkins, 2010). The advancement of critical pedagogy / practice can be recognised in the increase in practitioner research by educators; however this also highlights the highly individualised and highly means-intensive process through which critical pedagogy is acceptable within the current established system (Lamb & Simpson, 2003; Allwight, 2003). Russell (1995) reminds us that the process of reflection for educators is complex, and not necessarily fruitful. Whether pedagogy is to emerge naturally, or be designed and debated cannot be answered simply, and the development of good teaching methods is not best achieved by making teachers fit to 'rules'.

2.4 Summary of Specific Learning Difficulties and Support

This chapter began by outlining the primary issues experienced by persons with a SpLDs, and highlighted the inaccuracy of distinct diagnostic labels for this. Children with SpLDs have distinct learning support needs, and define an additional element of the experience of SpLDs – still sometimes overlooked.

Children with SpLDs are significant proportion of the school population, and many of them will not be receiving the support that they need. Children with SpLDs may be labelled in a number of ways, some of which may aid them in getting the support and access that they deserve, whilst other labels mire and controvert their needs, and facilitate inappropriate discrimination against them. On a positive note, considerable advances towards resolving these problems of inequality have been made in the last 17 years, and in some cases provisions continue to improve. Children with SpLDs currently face a crisis of definition. Diagnostic criteria that favoured their identification and, to some extent funding their provisions and support, are no longer as popular in the UK. Inclusive provisions may provide benefits, and potential losses, with many going identified. The need for identification in the current climate requires further investigation.

For parents and the general public SpLDs may seem like an empty term, and children with SpLDs may not feel acknowledged under such terminology. Policy makers however should have a more informed view, and therefore the variability in support provisions available reflects poorly on them. Multidisciplinary research and practice have the capacity to come together to better understand and support the needs of children with SpLDs. Beyond test scores, there is considerable scope for research into many aspects of both difficulties and capabilities of these individuals. In the next chapter the wellbeing of individuals with SpLDs will be explored and critiqued. The wellbeing implications for education and pedagogic practice for children with SpLDs are explored. The aim of which is to provide evidence for educators and policy makers, in

keeping with the UK government's 2012 commitment to monitor and improve wellbeing in the whole of society.

The literature highlights that teaching methods for students with SpLDs should be inclusive. Therefore for the present study it is necessary to have an operational definition of inclusion. As discussed in section 2.3.3, for the present study, considering students with SpLDs, inclusion is best described by practice based pedagogies. Florian (2014, p. 289) describe teaching that:

> *"responds to individual differences between learners, but avoids the marginalisation that can occur when some students are treated differently"*

Booth and Ainscow (2011) Index for Inclusion provides crucial indicators for critically identifying inclusion in schools. They identify that inclusive approaches are often not targeting towards one particular marginalised group, but rather broaden the education experience for all students. Section 4.2.3.3 further examines this perspective, and explores the observable characteristics of inclusive practice for the present study.The working definition of inclusion for students with SpLDs, in the present study is:

> *Inclusive pedagogy is the ongoing development and implementation of practices, cultures, and the resources in the learning environment, advised by policies and organic relationships, which strategically provides for informed specialized support, in a manner that avoids marginalisation by personalising both the intervention, and the socio-interactive elements of its delivery. This is achieved by teaching in a way that reduces the number of students who could be identified as marginalised by it.*

3 . Wellbeing in Inclusive Education

This chapter introduces the concept of wellbeing as a meta-dynamic theory that incorporates one's quality of life, empowerment, health, and other experiences. A general critique is followed by examination of the relevance and applicability of the concept to supporting inclusive education and Specific Learning Difficulties.

The literature on wellbeing digs deep into some of the oldest philosophical questions in human history, yet is also extensively critiqued with modern theory and interpretations. Key distinctions can be identified in the level and perspective of analysis drawn, and ideological conflicts raise debate over social, moral, and cultural values. As a result, the terminology surrounding wellbeing is complex, duplicitous, and in many respects unstructured. This second introductory chapter examines conceptions and categorical distinctions of wellbeing, and explores the purpose of trying to understand wellbeing in the modern world, and the applied context of inclusive education. By examining psychosocial constructs, instruments of measurement, and processes of intervention to support positive wellbeing, this chapter will highlight the problems associated with negative wellbeing, and how wellbeing is a dynamic construct that changes throughout the lifespan.

Negative effects on wellbeing are a significant concern for children with Specific Learning Difficulties (SpLDs) because their social and emotional experience can be coloured by notions of difference, persistent struggles, and criticism, in the educational environment (Alexander-Passe, 2010). In order to understand these negative effects and their consequences, this detailed exploration of wellbeing is necessary to critique theory, consider policies and interventions, and examine the meaning behind the perhaps elusive goal of positive educational wellbeing.

3.1 What do we mean by wellbeing?

Wellbeing [sometimes also 'well being' or 'well-being'] in the common vernacular denotes a generalised sense of being happy, healthy, or comfortable (Dodge, et al., 2012). Academically the term wellbeing has been used to describe wide ranging and numerously specific qualities of physical, psychological, social, and situational experience (Ryff & Keyes, 1995). Undertaking research into wellbeing may be considered a somewhat daunting task because of the limited applicability of research where a decisive selection of the material is drawn upon. The division in the literature on wellbeing has a clear distinction between objective and subjective interpretations of wellbeing (Alatartseva & Barysheva, 2015). Both positions determine very different approaches to understanding and measuring wellbeing, debating not only what wellbeing is, but what epistemological approach best captures the essential aspects of wellbeing for delivering change (White, 2010). Change, it would seem is what everybody wants! Wellbeing is therefore inherently problematized because of its operational and consequential facets, and remains difficult to identify as a wholly collective construct to be interpreted singularly (Sarvimäki, 2006).

Sarvimäki's Heideggerian approach explores how wellbeing is essentially conceived, in order to be changed or improved. In an alternate perspective, where wellbeing is interpreted as an objective measure, the literature largely implies that by measuring wellbeing through objective means can provide data upon which policy and intervention can be structured (Forgeard, et al, 2011). UNICEF (2007) gives the example of comparative wellbeing between different nations (with a focus on children), with the clear suggestion that some approaches to supporting wellbeing are more successful than others. Alternatively studies exploring subjective wellbeing imply that wellbeing is considerably more individualised, and that gathering wellbeing data can assist only those interventions that are context specific (Clarke, 2016). Subjective wellbeing in

effect approaches the question of limitation on the understanding of wellbeing in a different light, and often highlights the limitations on researchers to understand wellbeing in general (Priya & Dalal, 2016).

Wellbeing is not only divided by subjective and objective viewpoints, but is also separated between different domains (Pavot & Diener, 2008; Pavot & Diener, 1993; Cummins, 2005; Ryan & Deci, 2001). Domains are a common concept between subjective and objective wellbeing, and refer to facets or partitions within the concept of wellbeing, in which an individual may experience some aspects of wellbeing differently than in other areas. 0bjective wellbeing domains are broader or more encompassing, whilst subjective studies have a focus on more detailed or specific domains, often relevant to particular contexts (Dolan & White, 2007). One notable exception to this is mental health, which presents an example of where some researchers evaluate it as an objective health outcome, while other studies explore mental health as the subjective product of the environment (Keyes, 2006b). Throughout this chapter this and other dichotomies with be critiqued and evaluated, both generally, and with a focus on the wellbeing of children with SpLDs.

3.1.1 Objective Wellbeing – Does it Exist?

Objective wellbeing is typically referred to as a limited set of meta-criteria, often encompassing multiple objective measures, whether psychometric, sociological, cultural, or economic (Huppert & So, 2009; White, 2010). Objective wellbeing must be empirical, scientific, numerate, or quantitative. Although there are numerous studies that claim objectivity of their measures of particular types of wellbeing, here only more generalised groupings will be discussed – and specifically those for which the literature offers strong support.

The origin and societal function of wellbeing constructions cannot be ignored. Economic wellbeing exemplifies evaluation against western capitalist economic values – discriminating against nations with different political or economic positions (Veenhoven, 2012). Rural and ethnic sociologists such as Amato and Zuo (1992) and Kennedy and Cummins (2007), note that there is a lack of comparable measure which can be used to evaluate non-monetary wealth to an appropriate equivalent. Access to education is also often cited as a prominent objective aspect of wellbeing (White, 2010; Tsai, Chang & Chen, 2012). This suggests two key properties of objective facets of wellbeing:

1) Objective wellbeing measures consider factors that affect the lifespan, or impact opportunities
2) Objective wellbeing is societal or collective – while individuals are sampled, outliers or exceptions are not well represented by objective wellbeing measures

These properties are consistent in common categories of objective wellbeing.

Objective wellbeing has been used by several national and international study groups, who have defined objective wellbeing by the amount of resource average per person. The factors used however, despite being accurately objectively measured, may lack objectivity as measures of wellbeing. Western/Eurocentric values dominate this type of sociological research, and so the factors that are included are not inter-culturally applicable (Schimmack, 2008a; White, 2010). One example of this is access to education. Aside from the enormous variation in standards of education across the world (Bradshaw & Richardson, 2009), there is also the usefulness of it in certain countries.

Economic stability or success has been historically studied by governments as a measure of the success of its people. Such studies use measures of Gross domestic product and growth as indicators; however studies interested in wellbeing may also look at individual family incomes, or

at average incomes within local areas (Tsai, Chang & Chen, 2011; Camfield & Camfield, 2003). Economic success as a resource is widely acknowledged as enabling individuals to improve their objective wellbeing by meeting basic needs, enjoying luxuries, affording good standards of health care, etc. The product of living in a safe secure environment is also explored in much of the literature (White, 2010; Bourne, 2009).

Relative personal wealth is a good indicator of happiness, or evaluated quality of life. This is in fact a subjective evaluation of objective means. Local comparison effects have been shown to be particularly significant with numerous aspects of wellbeing, including health (Wood, Taylor & Lichtman, 1985), financial, and work related (Buunk, Van der Zee & VanYperen, 2001).

Access to health care for the purpose of international comparative wellbeing may be a useful measure for wellbeing, however throughout the literature it lacks clarity on exactly how good-health can be described as wellbeing (Education Scotland, 2008; White, 2010). Using a biopsychosocial model, good health can be understood in two parts:

1) The human species seeks to resolve physical negatives through the motivation of psychological negatives relating to it (i.e. pain, suffering). Experiencing pain or ill health is therefore experienced as reduced quality to life (where life is as conscious experience) (Fox, 1997).
2) Humans are evolved social creatures, with instinctive desires to procreate and to experience social lives. Illness or disease reduce chances for both as human has evolved to show negative preference for others under these conditions (Mechanic, 1986).

Although this model outlines why comparatively ill health would be relevant to wellbeing, it does not take into account the relevance of culture or religion – i.e. socially interpreted meaning. It also does not capture or explain causation. Anthropological and religious studies demonstrate the extent to which ideologies or beliefs (particularly of the afterlife) can mitigate or even out

way psychological consequences associated with death or suffering (Chochinov & Cann, 2005). Psychological stress can cause physical health conditions such as cardiovascular problems (Kiecolt-Glaser et al., 2002; Diener & Chan, 2011), and psychological states may even make the body more vulnerable to viruses or illness (Cohen et al., 2003). Such findings do not preclude physical health state impacting wellbeing (objective or subjective) because they do not define the origins of states of wellbeing, and neurological studies indicate the neural morphology as significant to this (Corbett, 2011; Gatt, et al., 2012). Therefore the relationship between health / health care and wellbeing is an indicator. The validity of indicators is discussed more fully at the end of this section.

Health research allows scholars to look more deeply at the interplay between factors that constitute objective wellbeing, but also between objective and subjective wellbeing (Dzuka & Dalbert, 2006; Diener & Chan, 2011; Cohen & Mount, 1992). One study identifies that objective health assessment does not lead to greater positivity: subjects dying from terminal illness in western hospitals were surveyed about their wellbeing. Participants chose to reflect on positive aspects of their life, such as family, achievements and quality of life before they became ill. This is not to say however that objective health wellbeing is not relevant – where the negativity is extreme, chronic, and without relief, or where suffering is not socially mitigated (McClain, Rosenfield & Breitbart, 2003; Cohen & Mount, 1992).

Mental ill health is used in some of the literature as a medical model of wellbeing (Goswami, 2008a; Goswami, 2008b; Segrin & Rynes, 2009). Difficulty arises in definition as some of literature refers to wellbeing as part of mental health, whilst others refer to mental health as something that effects wellbeing. Depression and anxiety are two of the most common mental health complaints associated with a common understanding of wellbeing. It appears that people pay less attention to wellbeing when it is positive, than negative (Baumeister, et al., 2001). This

distinction shows up repeatedly in constructs and measures, and is perhaps a crucial way society comprehends mental health. Quantitative studies utilising depression rating scales show a strong correlation with other accounts of wellbeing (Cummins, et al., 2004). Clinical neuropsychology generally posits that abnormalities in the brain that develop through genetics or through environmental factors can cause mental health problems that affect wellbeing negatively (Caspi & Moffitt, 2006). However causality is far from certain with many conditions, such as addiction, suicidal/self-harming behaviour, and depression (Willner & Mitchell, 2002; Agrawal & Lynskey, 2008).

The implicit suggestion in literature where the term wellbeing is used, is a little different. This suggests that mental health problems such as depression result from unmet needs, low life satisfaction, and generally aspects of subjective wellbeing. Segrin and Rynes (2009) demonstrate that positive relationships improve mental health (particularly depression), however this statement conflicts with other literature, in which competence in positive relationships is described as

a) an aspect of mental health
b) an aspect of social self-concept – used in several studies as a model to assess psychological wellbeing (based on the Ryff and Keyes distinction) (Ryan & Deci, 2001)

Arguably exactly the same thing is being described in both cases. The difference in terminology appears to serve to either enable clinical intervention, or not to. This is justified by stating either biological or psychological cause, as opposed to cultural, social or environmental causes. For many decades in the United Kingdom there has been a strong move towards de-clinicizing mental health, removing stigma and isolation, and opting for community based therapeutic interventions (Schulze, 2007). This is in contrast to approaches that favour medication and segregation. Research suggests this leads to more successful rehabilitation and recovery. Despite

this, the medical model is still predominant and the psychiatric discourse is still archetypal. Genetic studies of individual differences offer some support for such models. Furthermore pharmaceutical studies provide the largest contingent of the research to support mental health as objectively measurable (Clarke, 2009a). However given the wealth of research into the impact of cultural, social and environmental factors on wellbeing, the medical model does not offer a complete account of wellbeing, even though it may offer a paradigm for measurement and intervention in cases of clinical severity (Kirkwood, et al., 2010; Goswami, 2008a; Goswami, 2008b; McLellan, et al., 2012).

Objective measures of wellbeing undeniably offer a perspective on wellbeing, and provide indicators or predictors of wellbeing. There are also many aspects of wellbeing that cannot be explained in objective terms. To understand whether objective wellbeing has a place in the current research, we need to better understand the affordances and limitations of subjective wellbeing.

3.1.2 Does Subjective Wellbeing Answer the Question?

Subjective wellbeing is strongly associated with happiness. Subjective wellbeing has been explored from many different traditions and epistemological perspectives. In recent years it has become an important measure for individuals, for societies, and for policy. This "renewed" interest in happiness has lead researchers to draw on ancient philosophy, modern science, and now, postmodern sociological thinking. Below is a brief overview of the literature on subjective wellbeing, followed by discussion of the required balance between objective and subjective approaches to wellbeing in the current area of research.

Philosophers have long considered understanding happiness a crucial part of the human condition, and have proposed numerous approaches and constructs to explain it. Aristotle's ideas have been largely defining in the field, proposing two types of happiness (Waterman, Schwartz & Conti, 2008). Being happy, Aristotle said, could mean a lot of different things. He noted that people were happy with things they had achieved, but he also noted that people could wake up feeling refreshed after a good sleep, and feel happy because of this. In fact Aristotle catalogued thousands of scenarios for experiencing happiness, and from these studies he derived two distinct types, which he called eudaimonic and hedonic. Hedonic pleasure or happiness is experienced in the short term, and is the result of a positive stimulus. Seeking hedonic pleasure is inherently a selfish quest. Contrarily then, eudaimonic pleasure or happiness is reflective, evaluative, and influenced by social or contextual factors. The term "the good life" is often used to describe the Aristotelian conception of this kind of positivity (De Botton, 2013). Given the earlier assertion that human beings have evolved social needs, then our subjective reflection of our actions and interactions are socially mitigated.

Hedonic wellbeing has non-the-less been pursued and encouraged by other philosophers throughout history. Hume's stark challenge against religious morality and imposed philosophies of wellbeing highlights the essential passion in people that derives from what he calls 'original impressions' – i.e. sensory information, and how these drive thought and action (Cohon & Owen, 1997). Morality Hume claimed, must therefore not be based on empirical, rational, or purposeful endeavour, but must acknowledge and permit hedonic desires. Bentham continued Hume's work, developing a theory of utilitarianism – a consequentialist moral framework which purported hedonistic pleasure as primarily important, and that it could be quantified, and therefore categorised and organised based on the most likely outcomes (Shaw, 2006; West, 2008). This extreme contrast to eudaimonic notions of wellbeing and morality has been strongly criticised. John Stuart Mill highlighted the futility in quantifying utility, and was one of the early proponents

of the 'subjective' in subjective wellbeing (West, 2008). Individual differences, experiences, and needs, are not compatible with utility. Marx (Brenkert, 1981; Miller, 1981) later argued that Bentham's approach was structurally biased to towards a false archetype designed by a ruling class, and therefore was ultimately a source of suffering. Hedonistic or utilitarian arguments are most often critiqued as ignoring justice – something Aristotle argues people need in order to feel satisfied.

Beyond Aristotle, other famous philosophers have supported and developed thinking on eudaimonic happiness. Schopenhauer's perspective on happiness values such principles to live by, in order to reduce suffering and avoid disappointment in life (Kerns, 2013). Schopenhauer suggests taking a highly subjective approach, encouraging self-directed choices, defining one's own limitations and expectations, and individually operating to reduce suffering for others. Schopenhauer's ideas were still essentially based in consequentialist reasoning (Walker, 2011); however many other philosophers of happiness do not. John Locke coined the phrase the 'pursuit of happiness'. The nature of this pursuit frees people from momentary attachment to feelings or desires, and in so doing leads to greater truth, understanding, and 'true pleasure'. Locke's approach is rooted in notions of liberty and justice, and a consideration for future good. This perspective on wellbeing is similar to eudaimonic happiness, and closest to the psychological and sociological constructs of wellbeing discussed later in this section (Cook, 2013). Locke's view also shares other common traits with contemporary perspectives on wellbeing, including subjective individuality.

Nietzsche offers an alternative approach to the notion of 'pursuing' happiness (Joshanloo & Weijers, 2014). Rather he suggests suffering, pain, and negative experiences are essentially personal tests of endurance, from which one learns and grows. Nietzsche suggests that 'The most fulfilling human projects appeared inseparable from a degree of torment' (De Botton, 2013).

Greatness or achievement are impossible with experience, and cannot come easily. Camus is also critical of Locke's 'pursuit of happiness', and encourages transcending the duality of happiness and suffering (Camus, 1968). Camus sees both forms as transient, and instead encourages personal growth and development, greater understanding of all forms, and the mental freedom to cast aside rules, constraints, ideals and values. Otherwise, he suggests, we are assured unhappiness, because of the chaotic nature of life.

Despite these varying philosophies and more, we the people, are still unhappy! Philosophies of happiness demonstrate in their diversity that they are not all referring to the concept of subjective wellbeing pertinent to this research. Social change and scientific advancement have constructed the discourse through which wellbeing is now best examined, however philosophical concepts are still apparent in psychological theories and measures – and will be highlighted later in this section.

Subjective wellbeing is sometimes divided into *cognitive* and *affective* aspects (Schimmack, 2008b). These share many qualities of eudaimonic and hedonic wellbeing respectively. The distinction between cognitive and affective is a foundation of subjective wellbeing that is supported by its continued reuse in numerous models and studies (Ryff & Keyes, 1995; Bradshaw & Richardson, 2009; Dolan & Metcalfe, 2012), and also its harmony with other philosophical and psychological principles.

Cognitive subjective wellbeing is largely a top down process that recalls memory of experiences. Some of these memories will contain affective information, and other recalls will utilise moral, social, and contextual knowledge to make evaluations. Subjective wellbeing is derived from combinations of these. Cognitive subjective wellbeing is in effect arrived at through rationally cogitating meaning. The wealth of literature agrees that cognitive aspects have more impact on subjective wellbeing than the affective (Ryff & Keyes, 1995; Dolan & Metcalfe, 2012; White,

2010). Schimmack (2008b) describes this as cognitive appraisal superseding affective appraisal; as with the acceptance of short term pain for long term gain. Galinha & Pais-Ribeiro (2011) found that each construct was however partially independent, suggesting that subjective wellbeing cannot completely be understood as a single construct, and that there are distinct situations where cognitive appraisal is paramount, whilst in others, affective appraisal is.

Affective subjective wellbeing is a predominantly bottom up process (Galinha & Pais-Ribeiro, 2011). Instant emotional appraisals from sensory experiences, feelings that occur in the moment, or appraisals of how one feels at a given moment are all affective evaluations of happiness (Schimmack, 2008b). Some studies purport that affectivity is equal to subjective wellbeing (Diener, et al., 1985). Such studies advocate self-reporting measures and global models of wellbeing. Happiness and 'positive affect' are used interchangeably within models of subjective wellbeing (Eid & Larson, 2008; Haybron, 2007; Ereaut & Whiting, 2008). Positive affect and negative affect are independent of one another (Crawford & Henry, 2004; Diener, et al., 1985; Chang, Maydeu-Olivares & D'Zurilla, 1997). Positive affectivity is typically measured as a subjective evaluation of the frequency of experiencing emotions related to happiness. It is also used is some studies to measure instant response to an event / stimulus. The literature is consistent in the use of happiness as a "feeling", rather than a "thought" (Cosmides & Tooby, 2000; Schimmack, 2008b), where studies indicate that there can be a relatively short term effect.

Aristotle identified that eudaimonic happiness is a variable construct in which choice is an essential part (Martin, 2008; Reeve, 2006). Mill recognised that utility was differently served in different situations. For instance married life could be blissful, or terrible, while work could be hard or it could be enjoyable. In the eudaimonic approach, pursuit of goals could be meaningful or rewarding, or less so. Multiple dimensions to life and to wellbeing are termed domains. Domains of wellbeing or happiness draw division where the validity of particular domain

constructs, the priority of different domain constructs, and whether or not wellbeing is best evaluated in terms of domains, or as a single measure, are all debated (Ryff & Heidrich, 1997; Ryan & Deci, 2003; Gilman & Huebner, 2003).

Satisfaction in different domains can be explained from a number of approaches. Dissatisfaction in one's political domain could be explained by anomie – discomfort in the climate of moral purpose. It could also be attributed to feeling alienated or powerless (Seeman, 1991). Schopenhauer would remind them to be realistic in order to avoid disappointment. Psychological, sociological, and philosophical traditions all include domains, but emphasise them at different levels. Life satisfaction is a domain global subjective evaluation of a person's life (Schimmack, 2008b; Diener, et al., 1985). Measures of life satisfaction are a cognitive appraisal that weights and integrates experience across the full range of domains (Pavot & Diener, 2008; Pavot & Diener, 1993). Ryff and Keyes (1995) use the term psychological wellbeing[3] to describe a multidimensional evaluation of cognitive subjective wellbeing. Seligson, Huebner and Valois (2003) developed an approach that represented both domain global and domain specific measures of life satisfaction. Despite disagreement over measurement, the literature defines evaluation of domains of subjective wellbeing to be cognitive.

Several studies have used life satisfaction measures and affect measures together to study wellbeing (Schimmack, 2008a; Schimmack, 2008b). In such studies SWB is described as both affective and cognitive components, and an emphasis is put on 'subjective feelings', rather than subjective thoughts (Haybron, 2000). This is common in several studies, in which life satisfaction is described as 'influenced' by affective, motivational, and domain preferential 'feelings', suggesting that life satisfaction is a suitable summation of subjective wellbeing (Cummins, 2005). There is disagreement over the accuracy of multidimensional life satisfaction models because of

[3] The term psychological wellbeing is also used in other studies in a different way

subjective variation between domains (Cummins, 2005; Schimmack, 2008b). Büssing, et al. (2009) and Büssing, et al. (2012) apply multidimensional life satisfaction models, but within subset populations. Such an approach is not suitable for a general population. Similarly Huebner, Gilman and Laughlin (1999) work with children in selective age groups only.

Ryff and Keyes (1995) state that psychological wellbeing denotes positive functioning. Their model contains six dimensions of wellness (Autonomy, Environmental Mastery, Personal Growth, Positive Relations With Others, Purpose in Life, and Self-Acceptance) that are subjective cognitive assessment, and has been extensively reused (Huppert & So, 2009; Dolan & Metcalfe, 2012). The 6 dimensions are designed to be independent of one another, while the model is also domain global. This approach is favoured over models which only use either domain global *or* domain specific measures (Dolan & Metcalfe, 2012; Schimmack, Schupp & Wagner, 2007). Critics of the model suggest that the validation of the six dimensions is flawed, and that the independence of these factors may be incorrect (Ryan & Deci, 2001; Schimmack, Schupp & Wagner, 2007). Springer and Hauser (2006) found significant overlap in the dimensions, suggesting cognitive concepts were misidentified. Schimmack (2008b) suggests that domain and global preference / satisfaction is determined by qualities of these domains, and / or cultural / personal identification with these; however differs in arguing that these must be uniquely identified for each individual, and therefore suggests the assessment of several domains with broader criteria. This is supported by comparative studies which identify that in other countries the relevance of domains can be different to western nations (White, 2010).

Ryan and Deci (2000) model cognitive wellbeing as self-determination, consisting of the domains autonomy, competence, and relatedness. This dynamic purports that personal growth resulting from fulfilment in these dimensions *is* wellbeing. This operational and functional definition is oriented in need fulfilment, offering causal explanation for the significance of psychological

wellbeing (Deci & Ryan, 2010; Peng, et al., 2012). This approach is strongly supported because of the focus on experiential qualities, and its conceptual fit with both psychological theories, and social ideologies (Ryan & Huta, 2009; Ryan & Deci, 2001; Urbis, 2011; Huppert & So, 2009).

Maslow's hierarchy of needs (1970) is another example of an operationalised approach. The hierarchy recognises both objective and subjective states that relate to wellbeing, from basic survival needs, through to *self-actualization*. The included aesthetic needs, and transcendence needs, do not easily relate to other established qualities of psychological wellbeing. Self-actualization as a peak performance level is also different from other models, because it assumes that a person may be able to find this particular state, in a stable fashion. Maslow also makes the unusual claim that self-actualized people will be able to look at life objectively – which is largely incongruous with the individualism of subjective wellbeing. Clarke, Islam and Paech (2006) identify how the hierarchy of needs can be used to evaluate economic and social wellbeing. Wellbeing is conceptualised as the complete strata of the hierarchy, weighted based on the applicability of a given scenario, dependant on social choice theory (Clarke & Islam, 2004). Critics of Maslow's approach argue that his hierarchy of needs is not experimentally based, and that the 'climbing the ladder' approach is inaccurate, and does not allow for proven subjective biases in the evaluation of aspects of material and psychological wellbeing (Gorman, 2010; Tay & Diener, 2011).

According to Maslow (Levenson & Crumpler, 1996) self-actualised individuals function positively, so positive functioning is a developing process. In contrast Allport and Rogers see positive functioning as an emergent quality from other states or traits (Ryff & Carol, 1989). Ryan and Deci (2000) conceptualised the term 'positive functioning' as a reflexive construct. This is supported by experimental studies into the effect of mindfulness interventions on positive functioning (Moore & Malinowski, 2009). Similar studies have also been conducted in school environments,

suggesting that the dynamic of positive functioning is consistent for different age groups, and transferable between different settings (Meiklejohn, et al., 2012).

Resilience (or sometimes referred to as vitality (Huppert & So, 2009; Diener & Chan, 2011)) is a term used to describe the ability to not incur longer term negative psychological wellbeing as a result of experiencing negative psychological wellbeing in the short term (Kirkwood, et al., 2010). Beutel, et al. (2010) describe this as not making domain specific problems domain global[4]. Negative or low resilience can also be used to describe the generalisation of experience of helplessness (Lackaye, et al., 2006). Examples of high resilience relate to environmental mastery and self-concept (Beutel, et al., 2010).

Autonomy is a crucial aspect of wellbeing (Ryff & Keyes, 1995; Wollny, Apps & Henricson, 2010). Autonomy is a subjective evaluation of one's degrees of choice, freedom and self-sufficiency. Ryan and Deci (2001) and Ryff and Keyes (1995) share this common explanatory model for autonomy, however the relevant scope of autonomy is debatable. For Ryff and Keyes (1995) autonomy is globally assessed. This suggests that experiencing autonomy occurs with relative stability, and that individuals may balance domains of reduced autonomy with domains of increased autonomy as a trade-off, in order to feel contented. Ryan and Deci (2000) describe autonomy as more likely to change as the self is experienced differently in different domains. Reis, et al. (2000) add to this, suggesting that autonomy may be in constant daily flux. Autonomy is likely a combination – in constant flux, but with relative stability and global attribution, as this would be necessary to facilitate oriented goals in the process of self-actualising.

Environmental mastery is also referred to as competence (Ryan & Deci, 2000), and as capacities (Ryff & Singer, 2008). Evaluation of action resulting in successful outcome leads to positive

[4] Support for this notion in the literature is informative about the accepted relationship between domain specific and domain global experience – it appears akin to the relationship between short term and long term memory in cognitive psychology

evaluation of competence. In the Ryff and Keyes (1995) model environmental mastery also denotes the domain specificity of this dimension of psychological wellbeing. As this model of psychological wellbeing is global, environmental mastery is termed to be an over-all evaluation, as with autonomy in the same model. In other studies competences are recognised as being transferable (Camfield & Camfield, 2003; Field, 2009); this however does not take into account the skill of using the correct transferable capacity. Although not all capacities are sociable, most that impact psychological wellbeing are interactive.

Ryff and Keyes (1995) include 'self-acceptance' in their six dimensional model of psychological wellbeing. Similarly the terms positive self-regard, positive self-image, and self-concept are used (Farchaus Stein, 1996). Critics of Ryff and Keyes have argued that there is a degree of overlap in their model (Ryan & Deci, 2001), where self-acceptance could include reflection on one's identity construction, but may also be an evaluation of competences, particularly social competence, as this is highly significant in the construction of an individual's social identity (Green, 2008). Ryff and Keyes construct of self-acceptance shows the highest correlation with other established measures of psychological wellbeing (Ryff & Keyes, 1995). Self-concept in adults, although likely an important contributing factor in psychological wellbeing, may be too interconnected with other aspects of personality, identity, social identity, and other aspects of wellbeing to practically assess (Pinquart & Sorensen, 2000).

Ryan and Deci (2001) are critical of several models of psychological wellbeing for being too egocentric, and failing to identify the importance of social capital and social interaction as dimensions of wellbeing. Huppert (2009) also places the highest significance on social wellbeing, highlighting evidence of the interconnection between psychological wellbeing, social life, and health. Ryan and Deci (2001) use the term relatedness to describe qualities and perceptions related to social connections. Ryan and Deci (2000) use this as part of their tripartite model of

self-determination, used to investigate wellbeing. Social interaction is a fundamental part of human existence, both in meeting socio-physical needs, but also striving to achieve in the social group (Riggio, Thockmorton & DePaola, 1990; Coleman, 1988). Internationally agreed findings show that familial or close social relationships contribute to positive wellbeing, both in self-reported valuations and in objective studies of related material factors of wellbeing (Segrin & Rynes, 2009; Schimmack, 2008a).

Social skills or competences encompass social and emotional intelligences, cognitive routines, and communication skills. Positive feedback from social interactions improves confidence and efficacy in social competence (Riggio, Thockmorton & DePaola, 1990; Tsai, Chang & Chen, 2011). Social skills are often described differently to social competences. Social skills are defined as abilities, however common social skills measures, such as the Social Skills Inventory (SSI) assesses expression, sensitivity and control of social interactions (Riggio & Carney, 2003). As this is a self-report scale, this would appear to include an evaluation of appropriate use, which in fact defines social competence (Riggio, Thockmorton & DePaola, 1990). Measuring social competence is more complicated. In relation to wellbeing the perception of social competence is part of self-concept.

Social capital is a theoretical construct describing quality generated by the resources and support offered by members of a social community (Coleman, 1988). Although social capital cannot be empirically measured, the universality of material and emotional support supports this theory. Studies into general community wellbeing suggest that normative social structures can provide reassurance, reduce anxiety, and promote expression (Ferguson, 2006; Kennedy & Cummins, 2007). Examples of such social capital are cited as countermanding negative material capital or security of certain social environments (Coleman, 1988; The Royal Society, 2004).

Theories of community wellbeing suggest that wellbeing and human need must be contextualised within the properties of the relevant environment and societal subset (Helliwell & Putnam, 2004). Rather than objective measures of wellbeing, community wellbeing is defined through two subjective integrational perspectives:

1) The community as an entity has its own state(s) of subjective wellbeing (Kim, Kee & Lee, 2015)
2) Individuals' reciprocally experience part of their subjective wellbeing from the community (Forjaz, et al., 2011)

Roffey (2013) highlights that common beliefs and values are an essential for promoting community wellbeing; however this may conflict with individuals' needs for autonomy (Chirkov, et al., 2003). Roffey explains that collaborative actions and ethically responsible management of relationships within the community help to overcome the tension of this duality. Risks exist however, where within a community social capital may be a false consciousness – or shared fantasy, without substance that does not deliver on the shared goals or values (Veenhoven, 2005). This can lead members and the community to experience anomie, or certain participants to feel isolation. Wellman and Gulia (1999) hyperbolise this phenomenon in their exploration of online communities. Participating in multiple communities (real world or online) creates fractured identities. Bradley (2015) explains that inequalities and injustices are increasingly problematized when communities are no longer homogenously nor completely representing any position of identification. The fractured individual can lack ontological security and feel less whole or sure of self and identity (Giddens, 1991). Improving community wellbeing has also been shown to improve the mental health of individuals in the community (Roffey, 2013). Despite this the construction of mental health is inconsistent (Rosenhan, 1973), and is imagined by each community (Rogers & Pilgrim, 2014). Objective measures of mental health undeniably show

statistical correlation with other objective measures of wellbeing (Massé, et al., 1998). However because these measures are given priority, wellbeing is often assumed based upon mental health measures (Sheldon, et al., 2004).

Despite the plurality of social constructions and their constant interactions and assimilations, they represent a relative stability (Kyle & Chick, 2007). Mental constructions are not always so enduring. Social comparison is a continual ongoing process of comparing oneself to proximal others (Wood & Wilson, 2003). Comparisons are subjective evaluations based on aspects of others. These can be material such as money, possessions, achievements, or health. They can also be imagined qualities such as social standing, perceived happiness, personality traits, appearance, or abilities. Regardless of the domain, social comparisons are subjective, even where comparing objective means. This is because the objective aspect is attributed subjective value. Social comparisons can impact subjective wellbeing because self-perception is constructed relative to social constructions and norms – including those which are value laden, aspirational, defaming, or otherwise (Miyake & Matsuda, 2002). Negative comparisons, where one perceives to fall short of the other can cause short term negative affect (Norwich & Kelly, 2010; Dagnan & Sandhu, 1999), and can also be assimilated effecting domain specific self-concept / self-acceptance. Furthermore, repeated negative social comparison experiences are directly related to generalised negative self-attributions (Miyake & Matsuda, 2002). Aspects of psychological wellbeing (positive functioning, resilience, autonomy, environmental mastery, self-acceptance, social competence) are therefore unstable and themselves subject to social comparison effects.

Festinger (1954) stated that social comparisons are made with proximal others – i.e. those with whom traits are shared, within a local relevant community. This suggests that there is little purpose in comparing to those whose situation or attributes are not comparable to one's own. Michalos (2017) however challenges this by demonstrating that social comparisons can serve

multiple purposes, beyond the hypothesized self-evaluation motive. Downward comparisons may buoy feelings of self-worth where it is socially acceptable to be doing better than the other; however socially mitigating factors may also make such a comparison undesirable due to other attributes. Similarly whilst upward comparisons may harm self-concept or cause negative affect, aspirational motives may yield a positive evaluation from them (Collins, 2000; Wood, 1989). Social comparisons cannot however solely be consider an effector on subjective wellbeing. Lyubomirsky (2001) notes that several studies demonstrate how affect or aspects of psychological wellbeing are predictors for how individuals evaluate social comparisons. Furthermore Lyubomirsky identifies the interference of other motivational biases (particularly confirmation bias propensity), and that these are prioritised towards maintaining identity over wellbeing. Operationalising social comparison effects may be useful in improving subjective wellbeing because it demonstrates processes through which psychological wellbeing and affective wellbeing result positively and negatively. Reducing the number of social comparisons people are encouraged to make in particular domains can boost self-esteem (Butzer & Kuiper, 2006; Brown, et al., 2007).

Individuals have multiple domains to their self-concept, and may value their self-worth differently in different contexts. Lent, et al. (2005) demonstrate that overall psychological wellbeing is the summation of, and can be adjusted by differences to, specific domains, even when controlling for personality and affectivity variances. Therefore one of many plural identities may impact overall wellbeing of the person. This ongoing process of change can be explored narratively, which is supported by Waters and Fivush (2015) demonstrate the coherent narrative identity hypothesis experimentally. Farquhar (2012) explores wellbeing and identity through stories children tell about their own lives. Narratives provide an insight into the subjective view of others, by grounding subjective wellbeing with events or constructs. Narrative constructions feature as references for subjective comparison for individuals – i.e. where someone evaluates

their own circumstances in reference to a fable or common narrative prediction (Meichenbaum, 2006). Narratives create a circular lattice in which subjectivities can be reconciled with objective aspects of wellbeing – albeit subjectively. Critics of narrative subjective approaches argue that it is not possible to trust that the narrative told represents a narrative from a perspective that would be recognised by others. This characterises how subjective wellbeing must be understood and approached.

Maslow demonstrates that human need and wellbeing include objective criteria, and provide the basis for baseline levels of need, in order for growth (Gough, 2004; Phillips, 2006). Growth itself however is subjective, and studies exploring the variance of relevance of different domains demonstrates that there are no universal measures nor indicators of wellbeing. Whether subjective measures of wellbeing can alone evaluate wellbeing therefore depends on the situation, and the population of interest.

3.1.3 Wellbeing in a Different Scope for Children

There is a necessary division between states of wellbeing in adulthood and childhood. Wellbeing can be both philosophically and practically very different when consideration is given to the long term and short term perspectives, to standardised or personalised valuations, where intervention and/or change are involved, and situations where wellbeing is derived from shared interests. Many differences between child and adult wellbeing may appear natural inherent qualities, essential to the discourse. Children are not psychologically and emotionally as developed as in adulthood, and therefore their comprehension, engagement, and articulation of wellbeing is different (Fattore, Mason & Watson, 2009; Punch, 2004; Fattore, Mason & Watson, 2007). Similarly children may lack relative experiences that may contribute to their level of

subjective wellbeing, or have other differently oriented subjective wellbeing criteria more suited to their opportunities and capabilities (Tomyn & Cummins, 2011; Craven & Marsh, 2008).

There is a real need to explore wellbeing principles for children from the beginning again, because of the problems of articulation. Adult measures of wellbeing have traditionally been used as the benchmark for comparisons of wellbeing - the constructs from which adults aim to understand the wellbeing of children. Unfortunately what we see in the historic literature is that this is tantamount to ignoring the wellbeing of children, in favour of prioritising adult wellbeing (Shucksmith, et al., 2007; Rees, Pople & Goswami, 2011; Rees, Goswami & Bradshaw, 2010).

A developmental perspective on wellbeing means that our state of adult wellbeing is related to our state of childhood wellbeing. Fundamental theories of development, including the contributions of Freud and Piaget outline stages of development (Murray Thomas, 2004). Key features at different stages provide insight and understanding into the likely later expression of differing psychological development in individuals (Kirkwood, et al., 2010). Within psychological disciplines these are often pathologized and evaluated in terms of conditions such as attachment disorder (Mikulincer & Florian, 2001). Within an inclusive educational model however, the emphasis is on understanding individual difference and experiences, in order to create adaptations and provide support in order to facilitate positive development and growth (White, 2010; Greenberg, et al., 2003).

Erikson's psychosocial theory of development structures 8 stages of 'crisis' through which individuals develop differing social needs and encounter different requirements at different ages (Hamachek, 1988). Developmental stages are comparable to Freudian psychosexual stages, and mimic some of the requirements, and continues to the end of the lifespan – with developmental stages explaining aspects of adult life (Christiansen & Palkovitz, 1998). Crawford, et al. (2004) examine wellbeing and clinical mental health through this model. There was a strong relationship

between negative wellbeing and achieving identity consolidation appropriate for the developmental stage individuals were at. Eaker and Walters (2002) demonstrate that appropriate fulfilment of psychosocial developmental stage was also related to the wellbeing of a family community.

Schaffer and Emerson (1964) identified that attachment to caregivers or other structural support was plural, and that even young children therefore experienced aspects of their wellbeing in different domains (Fattore, Mason & Watson, 2007; Simmerman, Blacher & Baker, 2001). Formation of multiple attachment relationships in early years can support and improve development and wellbeing by supporting social skills (Ladd, 1990). Deprivation from attachments results in reduced wellbeing, however some studies question whether this can be conceptualised as a single absence in the dynamic, or whether other social and environmental factors also need to be considered (Rutter, 1981). Established positive regard creates trust, and a perception of permanence (Fox, 1997). Whether this can withstand absence of short term deprivations appears dependant on multiple factors, including frequency and duration. Separation anxiety can affect children at any age because it is relative to the security of the established relationship(s) and achieved level of development (Ainsworth, 1979).

Fischer's neo-Piagetian dynamic cycles of development explain individual development course (Fischer & Lang, 1999; Fischer, 2008). In order to achieve the next stage of development, a child must operationalise the current level of development by accomplishing single expressions of the level, and then developing these into related mappings of these expressions, and finally operating systems of expressions at this developmental stage. The impact of interruptions, including deprivation, ill health, developmental neurological conditions, etc., can be explained in this way. Fischer conceptualises these developments as cyclic adaptations. This theory operates on a cognitive level (reflexes, actions, representations, abstractions), but also for cycles of

cortical development, skill development, and social development (Fischer, 2008). Individual domains of wellbeing can be represented as combining these perspectives. This is supported by Ryan and Deci (2001) where it is recognised that multiple domains are subjective, but the construct behind wellbeing development within them, and generally, involves competence and evaluation of competence, achieving social relatedness, and operating with the capacity to obtain relative autonomy. Fischer draws on Vygotsky's zones of proximal development, where learning and development are scaffolded activities (Berk & Winsler, 1995). Insufficient support can delay or disrupt the process. The zone in question represents the potential ability of an individual in the particular domain. Wellbeing therefore also has a potential that can be achieved with support.

Hughes, et al. (2016) demonstrate that adverse childhood experiences such as abuse or social dysfunction negatively impacts adult mental wellbeing, manifesting as psychological disorders, where the greater the number of adverse childhood experiences, the worse wellbeing. Non-abusive experiences in childhood can also have negative consequences in adulthood. Controlling parents who deny developmentally appropriate autonomy can cause children to become co-dependent. Co-dependency results in lacking the confidence to make decisions, and being heavily reliant on others (Lindley, Giordano & Hammer, 1999; Ferrari & Olivette, 1993). Authoritarian parenting can also have negative effects on wellbeing. Smith and Mosby (2003) highlight that inconsistency and punishment can accord disturbed socioemotional outcomes, and impaired adult relationships. Negative social and emotional experiences can have a negative impact on adult mental health if they are internalised (Wright, Crawford & Del Castillo, 2009). Fischer (2008) explains that internalisation of experiences is relative to other experiences in the same domain.

Chronic long term stressors have an increased negative impact on child mental health than sudden events (Roffey, 2016). Roffey identifies several examples of long term stressors, including the experience of being a ward of the social care system, and familial poverty. Numerous studies provide evidence of strong correlation between child mental health and poverty, in a progressive fashion. Children in social care are 4 times more likely to experience mental health problems (NSPCC, 2014). There is also an increased prevalence in poor academic performance and special educational needs among these groups (Roffey, 2016). This suggests interaction between these different stressors.

In the current era of national economic austerity child mental health is reportedly increasing, and is often being managed in schools (Hanley, Winter & Burrell, 2017). An increasing number of young people in need of support for their emotional wellbeing and mental health is putting strain on teachers. Teachers are shouldering more of a burden than they feel trained to handle, or have the practical resources to support. There remains debate about the extent to which schools should be responsible for wellbeing (Bonell, et al., 2014). Ofsted have reduced the emphasis they place in assessments on student wellbeing, and explicit teaching to support wellbeing including PSHE (personal, social and health education) is not a mandatory part of the national curriculum. Government policy seems to be focussed on producing economically targeted outcomes from education, through a focus on traditional academic teaching (Gove, 2012, 2013a, 2013b). This may however be counter-productive, as studies demonstrate children in poor physical or mental health are less academically successful (Young Minds, 2017, p. 4; Bonell, et al., 2014).Child wellbeing is not always clearly defined with a model or a construct. Lay conceptions of wellbeing, rather than formulated models are often referred to. As such there is some lack of clarity between the terms psychological wellbeing and SWB. Urbis (2011) deems the two terms to have the same meaning for children; however this perspective may not address child perspectives. Several sociological studies of child wellbeing measure SWB only in terms of emotional wellbeing

(Weare & Gray, 2003; Bradshaw & Richardson, 2009). Where child psychological wellbeing is defined, there are two distinct approaches. Studies that include clinical, or suspected at risk populations of children tend to use the term psychological wellbeing to describe a medical or mental health model of wellbeing. Clark-Stewart and Hayward (1996) and Wong, Chang and He (2009) use clinical measures of depression and anxiety in their constructs of psychological wellbeing. Both studies explore the impact of negative life experiences on children, rather than the impact of clinical intervention on clinical subjects, and so the studies themselves support the use of such methods for integrated groups and control studies. Using a mental health model may be relevant in some cases, but is not suitable for describing wellbeing in an inclusive spectrum in relation to childhood experience and school. Several studies that term psychological wellbeing as 'flourishing' demonstrate the mechanisms and relationships with aspects of experience (Sideridis, 2007; Ryan & Deci, 2001; Urbis, 2011; Huppert & So, 2009). Ingesson (2007) explores the benefit of this approach over clinical methodologies with depression.

A key component in the construct of psychological wellbeing for children is social competence (Junttila, Vauras, & Laakkonen, 2007; Mazza et al., 2010; Prelow, Loukas, & Jordan-Green, 2007; Holopainen, et al., 2012). Social competence has high predictive powers for numerous different construct measures of psychological wellbeing, however within a developmental model it also serves to explain adolescent drive and the importance of peer relations in identity multiplicity and construction. Social skills assessment in children must be viewed as relative to development, which may also impact positive functioning of self-assessment or psychological wellbeing (Ferguson, 2006; Rees, Pople & Goswami, 2011). Therefore the able perception of social competence can be seen as a distinct aspect of wellbeing (Riggio, Thockmorton & DePaola, 1990). Social competence may be especially relevant for children's psychological wellbeing, as they are more engaged in learning than adults, and a large part of their learning is about the social world. As an example adolescents are expected to rapidly develop adult-like social skills; studies have

shown that adolescents who have difficulty, or who are slow in this are considerably more likely to suffer with depression or anxiety (Reed, 1994). As environmental mastery increases, the glass ceiling of opportunity must also rise – this is typically referred to as personal growth, and is relevant in all domains. Closely related to personal growth is positive functioning, within the discourse of life-long learning (Edwards, 1997).

Positive relationships (cultivated with social competence) have been shown to have a favourable effect on depression and stress (Segrin & Rynes, 2009). Reflexively, depression can lead to withdrawal and problematic social skills (Segrin, 2000). Social skills in children are relative to development, which identifies how general emotional intelligence naturally interacts with self-concept (Ferguson, 2006; Rees, Pople & Goswami, 2011). Disrupted or lacking positive social relationships do not simply affect an individual's social skills, but can also unsettle future states of psychological wellbeing because the experienced emotional state can leave a lasting internalised uncertainty or confusion (Shoemaker, 2000). This relationship exists with both individuals and communities. Children effected by shared experiences like this, or low social capital can become disorganised

The wellbeing of a family can be understood as the family's social capital (Ferguson, 2006; Putnam, 2000). This foundation allows the members of the family to reflexively utilise the family values and qualities in their own individual lives (Crespo, et al., 2011; Cabinet Office and Department for Children, Schools and Families, 2008). Although the literature suggests that familial social capital is not quantifiable, it is experienced as the time, effort, and quality of attention offered to the needs, desires and experiences of the child (Ferguson, 2006). Social capital also comes from the sources of community and education, however the values of family social capital can influence the degree to which outside social capital is accessible (Ferguson, 2006; Morrow, 1999). Homel and Burns' (1989) discussion of wellbeing in different environments

highlights that exclusion from social capital can extend beyond the home. Family poverty has a strong correlation with social exclusion and reduced SWB (McLoyd, 1998; Wollny, Apps & Henricson, 2010). This does not represent causality though, as poverty is often results from factors that such as familial separation, relocation, or other stresses in the parent's lives that may influence the quality of the social capital available within the home (Rees, Pople & Goswami, 2011).

The wealth of literature recognises that self-concept is the most central aspect of child psychological wellbeing (Craven & Marsh, 2008). Self-concept is a flexible construct that operates both domain globally, and domain specifically (Rothman & Cosden, 1995). Self-concept has a strong developmental orientation and a clear integration with all aspects of experiencing wellbeing (Hay & Ashman, 2003). Wellbeing can be understood in narrative or ongoing terms – constantly updating with new evaluations, and changes in priorities. At different established developmental stages, different structural organisations and process, and with individuals differences due to life experience and/or biological differences, the capacity for, and attention towards different domains of life affecting wellbeing differ (Corsaro, 1997; Corrie & Leitao, 1999). Contrastingly Ryff and Keyes construct of self-acceptance shows no typical age related effect, but does show the highest correlation with other established measures of psychological wellbeing (Ryff & Keyes, 1995). This is however inconsistent with numerous studies of child / adolescent wellbeing that identify reduced or changing self-acceptance / self-concept during adolescence (Nurmi, 1993; Harter, 1990; Zimmerman, et al., 1996). One possible explanation for this inconsistency could be the use of language, and the development of a perspective on one's own identity construction.

Marsh (1992) developed a model of self-concept and wellbeing for children and adolescents, taking account of age related social norms. Competences refer to domain relevant subjective

appraisals of the self to interact in a range of tasks or environments, similarly to theory outlined by Ryan and Deci (2001). The model is domain specific, but also domain selective – that is to say that the model willingly makes assumptions about the lives of typical children. Such domain selection is justified and supported by Shucksmith, et al. (2007) and Rees, Pople and Goswami (2011), who acknowledge that when studying children it is necessary to make several assumptions about the general population of children. Self-concept within this model is subjectively judged, and perceptions of performance are based largely on social comparison. Thus this is part of self-concept, rather that some isolated evaluation of competence - e.g. mathematical ability. This self-concept model has been used repeatedly, and cross-validated within numerous studies, and is believed to be the most robust measure of its type (Craven & Marsh, 2008; Marsh & O'Mara, 2008; Malmberg & Little, 2007). For Riggio, Thockmorton and DePaola (1990) subjective evaluation of one's own social competence is significant to wellbeing, and therefore is another term for part of the construct of self-concept.

When studying children it is necessary to make several assumptions about the general population of children (Shucksmith, et al., 2007; Rees, Pople & Goswami, 2011). The three distinctions that are relevant to understanding wellbeing in children, in relation to adult wellbeing are:

i. that children live as part of families
ii. that concepts, capabilities, and domains change with age, and
iii. that children are in full time education.

Obviously this does not apply to all children due to abandonments, social problems, disabilities, and barriers to education, to name but a few, however to produce generalizable findings this paper advises these as important benchmark sampling criteria. Adult conceptions of autonomy may not be suitable to describe childhood autonomy. Autonomy for children is often in conflict

with the boundaries defined by parents or teachers (Rees, Goswami & Bradshaw, 2010). Positive scaffolding responds to the level of need. For a child it can be difficult to realise their level of need, and therefore autonomy is absent in the relevant domain as the child is neither self-sufficient, nor free to make choices (Rees, Goswami & Bradshaw, 2010). Non-the-less adults recognise that this action is positive for the child's wellbeing, or leads to better outcomes (Ferguson, 2006). Autonomy can also be an illusion for children in certain domains. Financial and material wellbeing and stability are not in the remit of control of typical children, and yet children appear to typically show little interest in this area. This is because not having control in this domain does not hinder meeting children's needs / desires (Weare & Gray, 2003). Autonomy may be uncertain, but striving for it in adulthood or childhood is a sign of positive functioning.

Objective factors related to wellbeing shape the environment in which wellbeing is situated (White, 2010; McClain, Rosenfield & Breitbart, 2003; Cohen & Mount, 1992). The scale or scope of the environment is flexibly defined term, with some studies making international comparisons, whilst others focussing on domains or different local environments. The majority of studies that explore the relationship between child wellbeing and material factors focus on economic aspects. This is most likely due to the challenges of accessing broader data for large scale studies, and the extraneous variables of family and structural aspects on subjective aspects of wellbeing. McLoyd (1998) explores the effects of poverty on school achievement, social and emotional functioning, and life course outcomes. This study does not aim to explain a model of wellbeing, but instead highlights how the economic situation has a grave impact on the wellbeing of the sample. The relationship between parental responsibilities in impoverished settings and the consequential situations that arise provides deep contextual evidence for the impact of material economic resources on child wellbeing. However this study also stresses that it is the impact on familial relationships that has the transformative impacts, in either a positive or a negative direction. The

impact of economic factors are considered relevant, but a significantly greater weighting or importance needs to be given to social and emotional subjective factors.

Rees, Pople and Goswami (2011) also state that anomalies in these areas can negate the impact of economic wellbeing altogether. This is supported by research by UNICEF (2007) in which international comparisons of wellbeing were completely unrelated to each nation's economic situation, but rather indicators pointed to social and structural factors. Bradshaw, Hoelscher and Richardson (2006) try to evaluate where material resources fit within a developmental model of wellbeing and rights. Their paper makes a clear distinction between the 'political perspective' on wellbeing, and the rights that the child has to wellbeing in-situ, and concurrently. They argue that material markers or measures of wellbeing actually point to the indication of future wellbeing as adults, but ignore the actual subjective wellbeing experienced altogether.

Rettig and Leichtentritt (1999) use a narrative mapping of the ecological wellbeing of the family to further demonstrate this point. Using a basic relational structure of 'resources', 'functions' and different members of the family, Rettig and Leichtentritt (1999) show how the needs of family members are met through future orienting. Wollny, Apps and Henricson (2010) describe the family as central to the wellbeing of the child. Although economic material security is something that is provided, their research suggests that the social capital and emotional resource of the family are the real resource, not money. Doll (2013, p. 400) identifies that because of the multiple structural limitations on childhood independence, that:

> *"Resilience is a characteristic that emerges out of the systemic interdependence of children with their families, communities and schools"*

Children's wellbeing can also be evaluated in a structural sense from access to resources at school (Lackaye, et al., 2006; Shim, Cho & Wang, 2013; Catalano, et al., 2004; Wilson, Pianta & Stuhlman, 2007). Access to education standards and resources in not uniform throughout the UK,

and differs enormously compared between nations (Willms, 2003). For many children the stability offered by the structure of school may be a positive influence, particularly if the child's home life is not stable; however this is not always the case (White, 2012). Despite this, the majority of research into child wellbeing focusses on the family. The school environment offers social experiences that are not experienced elsewhere because of the collective of age comparable peers in a structured social community (Catalano, et al., 2004; Wilson, Pianta & Stuhlman, 2007). Age related peers provide a specific opportunity for maximised social comparisons, because social comparisons are made most with people with whom most other traits are shared (Festinger, 1954).

Social experiences in school are however not always positive. Bullying represents inappropriate imbalances in power that lead to targeted aggressive or antisocial behaviour (Vaillancourt, Hymel, & McDougall, 2003). Bullying can involve physical, verbal, or exclusionary behaviours, and in recent years electronic forms of bullying (cyberbullying) have become highly prominent in schools (Modecki, et al., 2014). Teachers are often not aware of many forms of bullying occurring because they exist within a social world that is not accessible to adults (Hamarus & Kaikkonen, 2008; Beran, 2006). Teacher interventions to reduce bullying are often not as successful as perceived, and these approaches often fail to reach or acknowledge many affected (Hall, 2017).

School is a structural influence on wellbeing, and therefore the opportunities, restrictions, resources, and support it offers to children reliant upon it (Lackaye, et al., 2006; Shim, Cho & Wang, 2013). Koshy and Pinheiro-Torres (2013) found that the majority of schools in England did not specifically monitor those children who were exceptionally able, and that they were having their needs neglected. It is not reasonable to assume that children who are achieving over the norm are not negatively affected in their wellbeing (Gallagher, 2015). Children fail to meet their potential when the school does not provide adequate means or focus. Lambe and Bones (2007)

identify that teachers without adequate resources are concerned that inclusive policies can hold back higher achieving learners, and therefore often direct attention towards allowing higher achieving children to succeed. This finding suggests that more individual attention is required in order promote equal wellbeing in schools, rather than the current direction towards larger class sizes (European Agency for Development in Special Needs Education, 2010).

The validity of the wellbeing perspective in education has been question by some who argue that it detracts from the primary focus of schools (Spratt, 2016; Bonell, et al., 2014). Although some studies have aimed to demonstrate the relevance of the perspective through correlations with performance, they do not often grasp the meaning behind such a relationship, or indeed the meaning behind promoted wellbeing (Spratt, 2017). Simmons, Graham and Thomas (2015) invited students to imagine an ideal school environment to promote wellbeing. This approach has been praised as reflecting student voice, and revealing how students recognise an essential relationship between inclusive values and wellbeing (Gillet-Swan, 2017; Fitzpatrick, 2016).

Participants highlighted how reduction of recognised stressors, including exam pressures, discrimination, bullying, and unjust discipline could help improve wellbeing. They also suggested some novel positive approaches. Participants imagined improved relationships with peers and with teachers, with policies and structured support in place to manage these interactions. Students desire scaffolding and support from adults in the school environment in order to feel safe to develop as individuals (Eccles & Roeser, 2011; Samdal, et al., 1998). Older participants imagined more fair and equal relationships with teachers, where pedagogical practices recognised students learning and emotional needs, and considered their desires. Genuine engagement from teachers, and personalised relationships were also desired from participants of their teachers. Florian (2014) recognises this is crucial to critical inclusive teaching practice – in that students cannot be 'included' unless they feel acknowledged.

The traditional power differential between students and teachers does not show signs of major change in UK schools (Spratt, 2017; Bonell, et al., 2014). Although Simmons, Graham and Thomas's (2015) study presents idealised musings (evidenced in some of the more abstract and utopian suggestions featured), the focus on teaching styles, learning environment, and relationships poses suggestions compatible with inclusive pedagogies (Florian, 2014). Furthermore, as wellbeing in children can be understood as developmentally oriented, then it is both future oriented, and based in learning. Spratt (2016) uses the term 'flourishing' to describe this eudaimonic quality to inclusion and wellbeing. Spratt's findings however suggest that many teachers do not approach their practice with 'flourishing' in mind.

Children's wellbeing must be conceptualised differently to that of adults'. Reduced autonomy means that children's development and structural support from adults, is crucial to understanding their wellbeing. Children have less experience to draw upon to evaluate their wellbeing, and the tumultuous process of identity formation can cause significant fluctuations in wellbeing in the short term. Measuring children's wellbeing has to be approached differently to take into account these differences, and to elucidate sub-cultural and emotional differences in articulation. In the next chapter the solutions to this are explored in detail. Structural and individual differences can lead to altered wellbeing in children, which will benefit from informed support.

3.2 Specific Learning Difficulties – Inclusion and Wellbeing

The wellbeing of children with SpLD has been studied extensively for over 30 years (Leonova, 2012; Kiziewicz & Biggs, 2007). The Children and adults with SpLD experience may reduced wellbeing, presenting in various ways (Sideridis, 2007; Alexander-Passe, 2006; Lackaye, et al., 2006; Mellard & Woods, 2007). Individuals with SpLD often have different psychosocial experiences growing up, including problems with bullying and lowered self-esteem, or a sense of feeling different or inferior to other children (Norwich & Kelly, 2010). As explored in the previous chapter, the term SpLD is used because it most accurately describes the collective difficulties, and their relationship to other cognitive process, as situated. Numerous studies however utilise a different means of classification, including definitions of dyslexia and dyspraxia.

SpLD groups are specifically vulnerable due to social comparison effects because educational segregation and supported inclusion both magnify this effect (Norwich & Kelly, 2010; Dagnan & Sandhu, 1999). Children can be particularly aware of expressed individual differences as they are still learning and defining aspects of difference while forming their own identities. Education environments exemplify standardisation processes, with testing and monitoring, streaming, and models for target attainment at every stage (Huguet et al., 2001). Although some schools offer different, more inclusive processes, comparison and attainment level are still structurally innate. Labelling difficulties such as dyslexia can be beneficial. Research has shown that dyslexic children benefited from specific additional learning about their condition, in order to better manage their academic and social struggles (Campbell-Whatley, 2008). This can help children to not make disheartening upward social comparisons with typical peers, and instead adjust their goal perceptions. It may also encourage them to focus upon positive skills (Kiziewicz & Biggs, 2007).

Lackaye, et al. (2006) argues that SpLD groups may have reduced social skills because of the structure of classroom learning. Academic withdrawal may constitute social withdrawal, and

children in general benefit from the social capital and social interaction of the classroom. This theory is supported by teacher observations (Lackaye, et al., 2006; Ingesson, 2007). Despite domain satisfaction theories, studies suggest that children with SpLD find social interactions outside of the education environment stressful. This is believed to lead to increased negative attributions and a negative world view, and lead to delinquency and socio-emotional disorders (Alexander-Passe, 2006; Ryan, 2004). Accessing social capital poses challenges for children with SpLD (Ferguson, 2006). Social capital is a property of the social environment, but with children with SpLD, focus must be given to how successfully they engage with this. Dixon (2003) showed that dyspraxic children were not able to communicate objective views about their social interaction or involvement, which suggests that the effort that they did apply, they felt to be acceptable.

SpLD groups can suffer affected mood as well as social efficacy (Lackaye, et al., 2006; Sideridis, 2007). Sideridis (2007) explores depression in children with SpLD. The approach identified positive relationships linking academic appraisal with goal-avoidant anxiety, and depression, as a result of a cognitive mechanism of abstaining. Self-esteem was predicted negatively by performance avoidance, and more significantly, clinical levels of depression also were. In goal avoidance scenarios children fear target setting scenarios where evaluation will lead them to feel negatively by making an upward social comparison (Alexander-Passe, 2007). Investment in effort was also significantly affected. Altered motivation and effort are widely recognised as indicators of depression (Cléry-Melin, et al., 2011). Anxiety is believed to be the most frequent wellbeing issue for individuals with dyslexia (Ryan, 2004; Goswami, 2008a). Fear of failure in school is believed to condition a response that leads to frustration, confusion and withdrawal, and that has been shown to continue to affect persons in adult life (Ryan, 2004). Carol and Iles (2006) demonstrated significantly higher levels of both state anxiety and trait anxiety for adults with SpLD in an educational population. This suggests that educational anxiety can be pervasive.

Anxiety in children with SpLDs often results in feeling hopeless or powerless (Ingesson, 2007; Alexander-Passe, 2007). Learnt helplessness can lead to emotional withdrawal, as a mechanism to avoid academic embarrassment. This is a state of depression that results from repeated experience of failing to master one's environment. This can result in children refusing to try to achieve or behave in a positive conducive way (Alexander-Passe, 2007).

Disruptive or deviant classroom behaviour is often associated with SpLDs (Reynolds, (2007). Behavioural conditions are often comorbid with SpLDs, so many children that could be helped with appropriate learning interventions are in fact being excluded (Pritchard & Cox, 1998). Children with SpLDs can become anti-social, or exhibit symptoms of Emotional Behavioural Disorder (EBD) (Casserly, 2012; Ryan, 2004). Miles (2004) suggests that there are cases where EBD can result from a lack of appropriate inclusive support, and that there are cases where EBD occurs alongside SpLDs. Truancy is also found to be more common with SpLD groups, which many report is because they are overwhelmingly unhappy in school (Reynolds, (2007). Labelling theory suggests that once a child is identified as having deviance behaviours in school, then the label or treatment they receive is comprehended by the individual, and therefore acted out upon reinforcing behaviours (Roman & Trice, 1968; Moncrieffe & Eyben, 2013). Children with SpLDs may perceive discrimination or unfair treatment from teachers for behaviour or poor performance which they cannot control. This can lead to alienation in the classroom, and decrease social motivation for obedience and normativity (Hascher & Hagenauer, 2010). Alarmingly several studies report an association between this alienation, and criminal behaviour (Baker & Ireland, 2007; Kirk & Reid, 2009). Roffey (2013) highlights that school performance targets in the UK often leave behind children who struggle to conform, where the emphasis is put on changing to child, not adapting the education to suit.

Children with SpLDs, including both with and without a formal diagnosis, can often experience stress and pressure if their attainment does not meet their parent's expectations. Children develop and explore the world from a secure base (Bowlby, 2005). If school is a source of stress because of struggles academically or social issues relating from unfavourable social comparisons, then home and family life can provide a supportive base (Junttila, Vauras & Laakkonen, 2007; Casserly, 2012). If pressure from parents about school undermines this safe quality, then children may opt for less beneficial, less structured support networks, in order to sure-up self-concept (Sideridis, 2007; Zambo, 2004). This is one potential pathway of 'drift' into delinquency. In contrasting circumstances, parents can also be responsible for failing to provide enough support and structure at home for children with SpLDs. SpLDs have a high rate of heritability, and therefore negative experiences of school life may be presented as normalised (Muijs, 1997; O'Toole & de Abreu, 2005; De Fraja, Oliveira & Zanchi, 2010; Solomon, Warin & Lewis, 2002). Parents in this case may either be unable or unmotivated to provide required support for their children in this regard. Roffey (2013) highlights that inclusion requires the whole school community, including the parents, to be engaged.

Many children with SpLD learn in integrated school environments, with special provisions, depending on their needs (Scanlon & Vellutino, 2009). Evidence suggests there may be a negative impact from both integration (with support) and from segregation in the learning environment, and so researchers are now looking for alternatives (McLellan, et al., 2012; Holopainen, et al., 2012). Although parents and families provide a nurturing scaffold for children, and that this has been shown to be the preferential support, children with SpLD may have needs that their families do not understand (Casserly, 2012). Given the significance of the social development of children in school, a specific focus on the experience of school for dyslexic children is required – something that parents may not have the knowledge or understanding to do (Zambo, 2004). Research methods including participation action research have been

developed to empower individuals and involve them in knowledge construction once again (DePoy & Gilmer, 2000); however it is unclear how much of that perspective becomes operationalised when schools operate with limited resources and large class sizes (Ijaiya, 1999; Takacs, 2002). Thankfully though, this understanding reflected in the academic shift in pedagogical approaches towards knowledge construction, as opposed to the expert-novice paradigm. The structural inequality of the classroom dynamic may not result in positive psychological constructions, and these may persist into adult wellbeing, given the comparative inequality of other structural relationships in society. Children who are labelled as disabled or having additional needs can often experience reduced autonomy because of tighter control over them from authority figures (DePoy & Gilmer, 2000). Autonomy may be uncertain, but striving for it in adulthood or childhood is a sign of positive functioning, and should be encouraged.

3.3 Wellbeing Interventions in Schools for Children with SpLDs

Wellbeing interventions in schools are relatively new to the discourse of education. Although schools have long held responsibility for children's wellbeing and development, the explicit change in language and approach is more recent (Lewis, Ecclestone & Lund, 2015). Wellbeing has become a political aim in society, and measuring its outcomes through intervention and policy has grown to include embracing the notions of wellbeing discussed so far in this chapter. School policies, both local and national have largely aimed to address shortfalls in previous outcomes, with a focus on economic disadvantage, mental health, familial stability, and integrating minority groups (Bonell, et al., 2014; Pinfold, et al., 2003; Greenberg, et al., 2003). An interagency approach has been taken in UK schools in order to better connect the resources of schools, social service, mental health organisations, and the wider community. Education health and care plans (EHCPs) outline issues experienced by individuals, and outline an agreed process of intervention between interagency resources, setting targets and responsibilities (Hayes, 2015; Strauss, 2015). Schools additionally have responsibility acting as a gateway for referral to some of this interagency support, and also in identifying potential children who may require this support (Strauss, 2015). Mental and physical health and wellbeing are not entirely separable terms, and the same applies for children with SpLDs. Mental and physical health is therefore managed in part through school policies, but also by separate agencies. Although the work of Child and Adolescent Mental Health Services (CAMHS) is relevant to the roles and responsibilities of teachers, as part of multi-disciplinary teams, CAMHS specific remit does not have anything exclusively to do with SpLDs. CAHMS focus is on clinic levels of mental health, and therefore this section will not explore them.

Wellbeing interventions in schools can take many forms, and be both explicit, and more subtle and integrated. School defines its own curriculum policy statement, in which some place

particular emphasis on areas of social, moral or other development. Schools therefore create their own curriculums that can adhere to several frameworks or programmes. Laneshawbridge School is a primary school in the north of England that teaches citizenship classes, and PSHE explicitly (Laneshawbridge School, 2012). Similar programmes include Social and Emotional Aspects of Learning (SEAL) (Miller, 2008). One of the aims of this form of education is to support the wellbeing of children by allowing them to better understand their own needs, rights, and development (Miller, 2008; Ng & Yuen, 2016; Humphrey, Lendrum & Wigelsworth, 2010). Weare (2004) advocates the 'emotionally literate school', in which children are coached in developing competencies with managing emotions, expressing emotions appropriately, developing relationships, and navigating social situations. Children are encouraged to be active contributing members of the community and to promote wellbeing for themselves and others. Anecdotally, a child known to the researcher has encouraged her entire extended family to eat vegetables daily as a result of what she has learnt at age 6. Despite the evidenced virtues of these taught wellbeing interventions, Bonell, et al. (2014) note that:

> *"Personal, social, and health education (PSHE) remains a non-statutory subject, and schools spend less and less time teaching it because of pressure to focus on academic subjects"*

Bonell, et al stress that not only are some schools not teaching these beneficial subjects, but that they are actively harming student wellbeing through narrow academic metrics. A focus on performance tables results in reduced attention towards weaker students. 'Teaching to the test' approaches also directly harm student mental health by placing particular stress and anxiety on students, and marginalising the remit of their self-evaluations (Desjardins, 2008).

Spratt (2016) argues that emotional literacy interventions can themselves be limited and performative. Teaching pre-defined operational attributes in order to meet the requirements for

support wellbeing may lack the critical engaged practice required to make students feel acknowledged and included, and lacking student experience perspectives (Florian, 2014; Coppock, 2010). Spratt (2016) suggests that interventions for wellbeing need to address 'flourishing', and that (*in the Aristotelian eudaimonic sense*) teaching and learning make the most significant contribution to wellbeing. Access and inclusion are therefore recommended as, in a developmental model of wellbeing, schooling makes a unique contribution to children leading meaningful lives.

The extent to which schools can provide wellbeing support through inclusive implicit processes may present problems, where resources are stretched (Hanley, Winter & Burrell, 2017). Parents may conceive a broader inclusive role for schools as hubs for their children's development, and a resource for the community. Contrarily teachers and statutory bodies (i.e. Ofsted) are reducing their focus on evaluating this form of support. Unfortunately this approach may lead to limited reactive interventions, and increasingly problematized mental health (Roffey, 2016). This can lead to exclusionary medically based models of intervention, which exclude student voice.

Roffey (2016) argues that:

> *"The most effective schools at promoting mental wellbeing and positive behaviour embed the core principles of resiliency in their everyday practices; connection, community, positive relationships, high expectations, and social and emotional learning"*

Pedagogy, policy, practice, curriculum, and resources can nurture resilience. Inherent traits can be developed through critical pedagogic inquiry, and through the school functioning as a supportive community. A core aspect of such studies involves respect and equality, and encourages children to behave towards others in an inclusive manner (Humphrey, Lendrum & Wigelsworth, 2010). Whether this has any direct effect on aspects of wellbeing in the school social environment, such as the potentially damaging social comparisons or discrimination

against children with SpLDs, it is unfortunately very difficult to gauge, because such ideological interventions are developed in line with broader community standards in the same field. These branches of study are popular in both primary and secondary schools, but this approach is not the only way to meet legislative requirements to provide this dimension to the education experience. The Healthy Schools programme provides an information resource and toolkit to integrate healthy living education into schools (DfES, 2013). This includes examples of how to promote wellbeing in schools, with a mix of curricular add-ons, and improved methods for monitoring and mentoring children. In Montessori education, the strong focus on expression and relatedness allows teachers to easily integrate these discussions into the rest of the curriculum (Lillard & Else-Quest, 2006; Montessori, 2013). Other curricula also achieve this in a more integrated manner (Woods, O'Neill & Woods, 1997; Roe & Aspinall, 2011).

Schools don't just interact and support wellbeing through taught content in class. Some schools engage children in direct therapeutic interventions. Mindfulness-Based Stress Reduction is used in some UK schools to support children's wellbeing. The effects of short daily exercises in mindfulness show improved ratings of psychological wellbeing and mental health (Gold, et al., 2010). The wellbeing of teachers also benefits from children who engage in this – supporting notions of shared community wellbeing. Crane, et al. (2010) identify the feasibility and benefits of rolling out mindfulness in more schools. They particularly highlight the positive impact on reducing stress, aggression and anxiety among children. Other approaches that acknowledge the need to reduce stress levels among children include working with animals to facilitate and support students in gaining confidence in their skills (Jalongo, 2005), and therapeutic games for the whole class (drawing upon play therapy research – i.e. Garza and Bratton (2005)). Accessing therapeutic tools in non-clinic settings is also a research trend in adult life as well (Allen, et al., 2015; Reb, Narayanan & Ho, 2015).

Beyond the ideological approach, inclusive practice focusses on multiple outcomes, including wellbeing, and as such can take many forms (Pirrie, Head & Brna, 2006). Inclusion typically finds ways to facilitate children remaining within the mainstream educational setting, so that they can benefit from the social and community wellbeing, and are given opportunity to achieve. Lindsay (2003) suggests that to study the success of inclusion, a detailed examination of the individual inclusive practices is necessary. The degree to which any given intervention is individualised or facilitated inclusively is dependent on the needs of the child. In many cases, teachers develop resources, or teach in a way, that is suitable for the whole class. More information on specific approaches are detailed in the previous chapter.

Studies that explore particular inclusive practices have revealed positive findings, indicating that inclusive practices lead to improved wellbeing, improved academic results, and improved educational satisfaction (Tapasak & Walter-Thomas, 1999). There is no evidence to support claims that inclusive practices will stifle typical students who are learning with children with identified different learning needs (Goodley, 2008). Therefore for most children, developmental wellbeing is supported by inclusive practice, combining positive ethical and moral aims and dimensions, and maximising social capital and experience. For some children however, mainstream inclusion does not work. Some children with SpLDs are educated in specialist schools that provide enhanced support, and specific teaching approaches (Good School Guide, 2015; Thomson, 2003). There is little research or policy into this comparative education experience, because of the varying approaches and small number of schools, and because most of these schools in the UK are privately run (although there are some state operated). One such school features in the current study, in order to explore the different experiences and wellbeing of these children.

The majority of interventions that schools provide to support child wellbeing are collective policies. Pastoral services may be provided to children on an individual basis, including counselling, advice and support, and signposting to services (Cooper, 2009a). A further example is where teachers intervene to stop bullying or other harmful behaviours. Ttofi and Farrington (2011) found that despite interventions having a largely positive effect, that bullying still occurred, and was often misunderstood. Their analysis also found that certain interventions were counterproductive. Programs which operated the most inclusively and broadly had the least targeted effects, but were well received. Approaches that attempted to alter specific or individual dynamics often had negative outcomes for the at risk children. Vaillancourt et al. (2008) note that many children do not feel that their perspectives on bullying are taken into consideration by policies enacted by teachers/adults. This raises the issue of whether teachers/adults have the capacity to truly understand the wellbeing of children (Crivello, Camfield & Woodhead, 2008). Fernandes, Mendes and Teixeira (2012) identify that in both research and practice children's voices are often not heard, or misrepresented. Although, it is appropriate for teachers/adults to scaffold the environment of children in order to promote wellbeing, it is also the case that this scaffolding restricts certain forms of expression. In the next chapter, arguments for facilitating children's voice in research are discussed, and the implications for the current study are explored.

3.4 In Conclusion

Once we understand that wellbeing is not a fixed term describing a fixed state, then we can explore wellbeing as a dynamic that integrates many psychological and sociological constructs. Wellbeing is however much more than just an umbrella term. The purpose of bringing together facets as a conception of wellbeing is to operationalise and improve understanding, without having to view aspects in isolation.

Understanding wellbeing requires self-reflection and positioning, however both can be positive or negative, depending on context and interpretation. Wellbeing is undoubtedly best understood as subjective interpretation, but that includes subjective interpretation of objective aspects of life. Wellbeing differs for children because their autonomy and understanding are limited, but their wellbeing is still of crucial importance. Adult perspectives on child wellbeing may be inadequate to achieve valid interventions. Models of development that incorporate wellbeing demonstrate that even into adulthood, we continue to develop, and our wellbeing continues to change. Therefore for conceptions of wellbeing that acknowledge development, change, and process are essential.

Children with SpLDs may experience reduced wellbeing, not just as children, but also as adults because experiences from childhood are internalised into our identity and eventually adult self. There is therefore a need to improve the way in which children with SpLDs are supported in school, in order to reduce the impact of difficulties, and to include them in our communities. Currently wellbeing discourse is still somewhat marginalised within clinical contexts, and wellbeing does not get the required engagement with the public at all stages of life. Further integration between psychological and sociological approaches may prove beneficial.

The working definition of wellbeing for students with SpLDs, in the present study is:

Wellbeing is the developing process towards flourishing and growth of capabilities, and reflection upon them, contributing to self-concept as a subjective evaluation. As children, students with SpLDs have their wellbeing structurally mitigated by systems outside of their control, however balanced growth towards autonomy and empowerment is essential for the formation of identity, which is influenced by different subjective domains of experience, and yields increased resilience with greater cohesion. The school environment has a pivotal impact on the self-concept of students with SpLDs because it can be a source of significant challenge, whilst also hosting domains from which significant social capital can be drawn, and flourishing can take place.

This chapter has aimed to explain complex relationships that contribute to wellbeing, in order to provide the knowledge base from which to pursue the current research. In the next chapter the methodology for the current study is explored and justified. The chapter continues from chapters on special educational needs and wellbeing, with a focus on the design and selection of tools for gathering and measuring data on these aspects. The chapter goes onto explore the process of designing analysis methods for a study that aims to elucidate atypical perspectives on the topics of wellbeing and special education provision.

4 . Research Methodology

This chapter leads the reader through the process of developing the research methodology, designing study protocols and tools based upon theory, and the interpretation of the research question. The chapter goes onto to consider 'troubled' research experiences

The choice of methodology in the study prioritises the need to attain the child's perspective. This ambition requires considerable ethical consideration, and carefully selected processes. Contrary to the original intentions, this study became heavily focussed on methodological and epistemological concerns, and this chapter aims to offer a depth of argument worthy of debate. The experience of researcher and participant are brought to bear to elucidate the most interesting and rewarding aspect of this study for those involved. This chapter explores the mixed methods design, including a detailed justification for its aspects and internal relationships.

4.1 Interpreting the Research Questions

This section summarises the rationale for the study, based on the literature, and then describes the epistemological and practical processes of deriving research questions for the study.

4.1.1 Research Rationale

The wellbeing of students with SpLDs can be negatively affected by some educational experiences (Sideridis, 2007; Alexander-Passe, 2006; Lackaye, et al., 2006; Mellard & Woods, 2007). Self-concept in multiple domains may be affected, become internalised, persisting into

adulthood (Armstrong, 2014; Kelly & Norwich, 2004). The wellbeing of students with SpLDs understood as developmental and subjective, invokes the potential for transformation and 'flourishing' (Di Martino & Zan, 2011; Spratt, 2016; Ryan & Deci, 2001; Urbis, 2011). The literature review revealed that inclusive education has the most potential for delivering this (Spratt, 2016; Simons, Graham & Thomas, 2009). The distinction of a particular inclusion for students with SpLDs is not a contradiction, but rather it is an *additional* pedagogic perspective (Gabel, 2002; Ainscow, Booth & Dyson, 2006; Florian, & Linklater, 2010).

This thesis aims to juxtapose the two, somewhat elusive concepts, of inclusion and wellbeing, to explore interrelated outcomes, including the impact on individual and collective wellbeing (Beacham & Alty, 2006), the impact on individual identity (Anderson, 2009), and to explore positive approaches for students with SpLDs (Kiziewicz & Biggs, 2007). This study aims to provide evidence for educators and policy makers, in order to drive wellbeing improvement programs for schools, in accordance with government policy aims to improve wellbeing for young people (DfES, 2013), and for the whole of society (Ereaut & Whiting, 2008). Furthermore this study aims to characterise practices which provide meaningful inclusive support for students with SpLDs.

The literature discusses the potential for inclusive education to improve wellbeing (Simmons, Graham & Thomas, 2009; Spratt, 2016); however no known study explores or articulates how specific practices of inclusive education impact student wellbeing. Furthermore, no study identifies how inclusive practice specifically affects the wellbeing of students with SpLDs. This is a significant gap in the literature because:

a) Inclusive practice has become the dominant ideological teaching approach for UK schools (Booth & Ainscow, 2011)
b) Inclusive practices are practically aligned with situated wellbeing interventions (Florian 2014)

c) SpLDs represent a significant proportion of students, and supporting them inclusively would also support those not formally diagnosed (British Dyslexia Association, 2012; Alexander-Passe, 2010)

The subjective and reflective nature of wellbeing for students with SpLDs supports the use of qualitative methods, in order to bring forward an authentic voice from participants (Simmons, Graham & Thomas, 2009; Punch, 2002b). This is important because the literature highlights that students with SpLDs also have their wellbeing structurally mitigated by systems outside their control (Shucksmith, et al., 2007; Rees, Pople & Goswami, 2011). This also provides the opportunity to use quantitative measures of these constructs – particularly measures of multi-domain self-concept (Craven & Marsh, 2008; Marsh, 1992). Section 4.2.3 explores the approach to mixed methods in detail.

Inclusive practices in present study are examined through the lens of students with SpLDs. This aims to provide assistance to the literature, in elucidating particular inclusive practices, and connecting them to broader educational psychology literature. There remains to this day a gap between the psychological and the pedagogical (Breuing, 2011). The literature highlights the benefit of teachers harnessing multi-epistemological perspectives (Fischer, 2009). This is further explored in section 4.3.

This study explores *how* teaching methods can improve the wellbeing of students with SpLDs, through an examination of the relationships between the two phenomena, and by gathering data about each phenomenon across different educational environments. Understanding *how* this happens emphasises providing descriptive mechanisms and exploring potentially causal explanations. The following the section further examines the interpretation of the rationale for research, formulating a research question, and examining the epistemological constructions, from which the research establishes its start point.

4.1.2 Interpreting the Primary Research Question

Designing the methodology naturally began by considering the research question "How can teaching methods improve the wellbeing of students with specific learning difficulties?". The literature review revealed the importance of grounding measures and outcomes in the student perspective. The valid question is therefore constructed by considering whether students with specific learning difficulties can answer the research question. Operationalising the research question required some further unravelling.

Parallel to the validity of the question is the epistemology of the relationship between phenomena. The first phenomenon is that of wellbeing. The term itself is uncertain and this places a limitation on the study because this primary phenomenon cannot exist in a positivist paradigm where it is different in different contexts. Because wellbeing exists in this post-positivist realm, it is necessary to go beyond just the contexts identified in the literature, and to look at the positionality of the researcher and the current question.

For the researcher the concept of wellbeing is something gradually arrived at. Coming from a psychology background wellbeing was a concept structured through clinical definitions, and an experimentally informed perspective. Understanding the intricacies of wellbeing in the literature has broadened this perspective beyond scientific limitations. Working within mental health in the community and rehabilitation projects, wellbeing became a lived practice and this nurtured a holistic understanding in which wellbeing was a social phenomenon as well as an individual trait. Consistent, however, with both experiences and perspectives was the idea that wellbeing was something that needed to be 'fixed'; where the researcher as a professional had a responsibility to intervene. The researcher expects to discover negative experiences and attitudes in some students (an issue of positivism - Clough and Nutbrown (2012). In order to minimise the effect of

this significant bias the research design must explore wellbeing subjectively, and focus on presenting the participant perspective.

The second phenomenon is teaching methods. The discourse of teaching methods for students with SpLDs settles around intervention for support (Westwood, 2007). Inclusion as a philosophy, or as a critical pedagogy rejects the dualism of a diagnostic model, yet despite this the literature is dominated by studies exploring the inclusion of specific diagnostic groups (Florian, 2008; Addy & Dixon, 2013; Williamson, 2014). Inclusion is intrinsically a collective and interpretationist phenomenon, with many actors and subjective positions. The researcher initially approached inclusion from a rationalist perspective, being neither a practitioner nor having experience of being 'included' under the aforementioned 'progression'; however inclusion is a philosophy, ideal, or political move towards a way of thinking about society (Barton, 2013). Scheurich (1994) identifies the relevance of a researcher's social class - a constructivist perspective. Engagement in researching inclusion has polarised the researcher's perspective because issues such as the funding of support for school students with specific learning difficulties, reveal interpretations and narratives that dismiss empirical critique.

The third phenomenon is the relationship between teaching methods and wellbeing. A catalogue of international studies highlight that students with SpLDs can experience difficulties that extend beyond their academic work. However some studies explore the positive impact of interventions on the wellbeing of persons with SpLDs (Kizeiwicz & Biggs, 2007; Saffran & Estes, 2006). These studies highlight positive qualities and abilities of persons with SpLDs and present inclusion as an approach that removes the bias of traditional teaching methods against particular learning styles. Relevant empirical studies typically utilise a psychological methodology. They acknowledge a rationalist agenda, drawing from a literature of mixed epistemologies; however they often lack contiguity with their referent descendants where the diverse methods are not actually

measuring the same construct (Nelson & Manset-Williamson, 2006; Margalit, 2006; Huebner, Gilman & Laughlin, 1999; Graham, 2009). Therefore discerning the relationship between teaching methods and wellbeing involves scrutinising the constructs behind common terminologies.

The relationship between teaching methods and wellbeing has not been identified as causal in any known study. According to Goldman (1967) causal relationships require knowledge that is accepted as fact. For the present study this is problematic because the teaching methods phenomenon is interpretive by nature. Wilde and Williamson (2016) reject causal pluralism because it can result in over-determination – a bias of confirmation. The present study's aim of identifying causality is, therefore, limited to utilising only empirical data to claim causality, and thus the phenomena must independently measure complete conceptual constructs for quantitative (and *potentially* qualitative) data.

For the researcher the relationship reflects a propensity to integrate knowledge and experience as the researcher's work and education have converged. This is illustrated in the integration of therapeutic concepts in the exploration of the school environment, as well as the original start point for the present work – Mind, Brain, Education *[MBE]* (Tokuhama-Espinosa, 2011; Fischer, Bernstein & Immordino-Yang, 2007). Fischer proposes a fractal adaptive cyclical framework for integrating the contradictory epistemologies of education and neuroscience. Such interconnecting systems are also popular for describing natural social systems in ecology and economics, including Panarchy (Gunderson & Holling, 2001). Fischer developed a neo-Piagetian psychological construct that rejected the principle of static, measurable, or linear development, in favour of a cyclical process. The same cyclical systems can be identified in skill learning in neurocognitive research, and in inter-actionary cycles of learning such as Kolb's experiential learning model (Fischer, 2008; Schenck & Cruickshank, 2015).

Psychotherapy discourses present distinct incompatible issues for the current study. In choosing to explore the relationship, the researcher also adopts a postmodern interpretation. Foucault recognised the hegemony of modernist psychiatric practice (Ali, 2002), where the discipline autocratically dictated the norms of health and mental wellbeing, without regard for the consequences of life histories of patients. Any ethical intervention must therefore acknowledge a post-structuralist perspective and must prioritise participant voice (Chambon, Irving & Epstein, 1999). Methodologically postmodernism has parallels with constructivism (Brinner, 1999). The present study must consider the reflexivity of practice and continual development of engaged practitioners in understanding the environment of inclusion (Pollard, et al., 2014). Similarly student participants are developing continual life stories, and the methodology needs to appropriately explore experiences of change. According to Lacan (Cho, 2011) perceptions of imagined 'mirror' selves inform our self-perception, and, therefore, a postmodern research methodology must capture relativist perspectives of self, rather than seek objective difference. Althusser discusses how "ideology represents the imaginary relationship of individuals to their real conditions of existence" (Eagleton, 2014). The methodology must therefore examine both student and teacher ideologies, and critique these together using relevant theory, in order to understand the scope of the relationship.

Education, according to Lyotard (1984) has become essentially performatist. In Lyotard's postmodern vision of education research, all forms of data have limitations because local narratives have replaced grand ones, and a lack of consensus destabilises knowledge within the domain or practice. Scheurich (1997) explores the methodological impacts of this in his critique of interviews. Based on Derrida's notion of 'surplus' he argues that in the context of interviews, data is limited by the known means of recording expression (i.e. knowing one is being audio recorded and performing for this medium), and what broader enacted expressions are not captured, for instance facial expressions (Alvesson, 2010). Scheurich (1997) however provides

some assurance that rigour in coding and analysis, that avoids bias towards self-authored narratives, maintains the accuracy and context of data; however to do this researchers must utilise methods that encourage participants to give open input. Scheurich (1997) also strongly cautions researchers from 'inscribing' knowledge, even through these processes. For the present study it will be necessary to verify that the analysis is clear of these assumptions by utilising multiple perspectives. Two preferred approaches are multiple coding to ensure inter-rater reliability (Miles & Huberman, 1994), and multi-researcher analysis (Olsen, 2004; Wendler, 2001).

Reflexivity of method, interpretation, and ideology are fundamental to a postmodern understanding of any given research topic (Scheurich, 1997). A key concern in the positionality of the current study lies with the capacity for adult researchers to understand the perspectives of children. Scheurich highlights that researcher discipline risks subverting participant ontology. This results in the need to explicate the 'practice of the self' (Bernauer and Rasmussen, 1994) because research reflexively changes all parties in the research process, creating social phenomena, patterns of behaviour, and altered identities.

The role of the teacher is a construct changed by policy, identity, and by one's environment (Beauchamp & Thomas, 2009). In the modern literature the plurality of teacher roles is described as having a significant impact on professional development, and on priorities within the classroom (Reinke, et al., 2011; Mockler, 2005; Van Veen, Sleegers & Van de Ven, 2005). Researching the relationship contributes to this hybridisation by encouraging participating teachers to consider the plurality of their roles and their responsibility towards wellbeing. The researcher must be conscientious that some participating teachers may not identify themselves as a therapeutic wellbeing practitioner, and therefore must ensure that questions do not bias the response. Hybrid actors can also become purveyors of simulacra (Norris, 2007). Practices so hybridised can become empty and misrepresentative – based on common knowledge rather

than critique and expertise. To understand the relationship the researcher must identify distinctions between daily practice and behaviour, and professional development and training. This should allow the researcher some insight into the construction of teachers' identities.

Post modernism in the present study created a significant conflict in the analysis process. The practicalities of this and the chosen solution are discussed below, in the section *'Troubled' Analysis*.

The fourth phenomenon is specific learning difficulties (SpLDs). For the purpose of the current study's methodology there is no need to identify SpLDs; however this still informs the methodology. The relevance of classifications such as dyslexia are contested, particularly where it is claimed that this construct does not stand up to statistical rigor (Elliott & Grigorenko, 2014). In historic literature and much international literature SpLDs are categorised as a learning disability (Lackaye, et al., 2006; Munro, 2003), while in contemporary inclusion based literature SpLDs exist as part of a continuum of learning styles – and are <u>not</u> a disability, but rather exist because of less than perfect teaching methods (Exley, 2003; Smith, 2002). This conflict between social and medical models undermines empirical definition of SpLDs for the purpose of the study. This conflict places limits on the methodology because positivist tests of difference cannot be applied to compare an SpLD group and another – a developmentally typical group. As a result there will be no baseline comparison, as in many psychologically based studies of SpLDs and wellbeing (Lackaye, et al., 2006; Scanlon & Vellutino, 2009), because such a duality is incompatible with the research approach.

4.1.3 Secondary Research Questions

Secondary research questions were developed in order to draw on the wealth of the literature, and to ensure that the methodology did not overlook essential questions. Although a grounded and open exploration of the relationship between phenomena is central to this study, the impact of institutional constructs and processes cannot be ignored (Fitch, 2002; Ball, 2010; Henkel, 2005). Secondary research questions are used to develop the methodology and tools for the present study; however they do not feature in the interpretation of the findings as this can be guided by participant data. This approach is consistent with Vagle (2014) who advises using secondary research questions to give direction to the data collection and explication of processes.

For both student and teacher participants, the primary research question "How can teaching methods improve the wellbeing of students with specific learning difficulties?" provides the core basis from which to design methodology. Secondary research questions similarly target both populations, but there is a need for differing emphasis, in order to reflect the practical relationship between the two groups. In determining the secondary research questions, several key queries were considered:

- How can the asking of particular research questions (directed exploration) avoid biasing the responses?
- How open or direct should the researchers be about the research questions with the two different participant groups?
- How can evidence from the two participant groups be integrated in order to representatively answer targeted research questions?

These separate paradigms provided the researcher the opportunity to *reverse-engineer* the secondary research questions by framing broad questions about distinct different experiences of teachers and students, as unified 'topics' for exploration. From this, the questions are both led by

and developed from a detailed review of the literature, and also oriented to reduce inequalities and assumptions from institutional biases inherent to the structure of modern education (Fitch, 2002; Ball, 2010; Henkel, 2005). Furthermore this approach provided justification for accommodating appropriate linguistic and communication differences into research methods (Murray, 2011; Smith, 2004a). Students occupy different social worlds than teachers, with different discursive and social constructions, which researchers must represent (Punch, 2002a, Casserly, 2011; Ingvarson & Rowe, 2008). Children are also less emotionally articulate than they will be as adults. Erikson's stages of psychosocial development highlight that at younger ages, expression is more practical or task oriented, later becoming more cognisant, reflective, and socially aware (Crain, 2011). For the population of the present study this is also important because SpLDs can affect communication capabilities (British Dyslexia Association, 2012). Practitioner discourses also introduce abnormal terminology which cannot be adequately accounted for in a general paradigm (Lamb & Simpson, 2003; Allwight, 2003).

Three secondary research questions are critiqued in the sections below. Section 4.2.3.2 and 3.2.3.3 explore the formulation of secondary research questions into the design. A description of the method undertaken is described in section 4.5.1.

4.1.3.1 How are students with SpLDs different?

Following the assertions of the fourth phenomenon from section 4.1.1: Specific Learning Difficulties, SpLDs are too contested a grouping to make positivist claims of difference about. This does not limit the study of related social constructions and/or experientially based exploration (Elliot & Gibbs, 2008; MacDonald, 2009). This is also an appropriate limitation because of the relationship between the participants and the phenomenon. They are either students who have been labelled as having an SpLD, and received different treatment because of

this. These students have their lived experience of having an SpLD, but with no concrete metric to frame their experience (MacDonald, 2009). Or they are teachers who have encountered students labelled as having an SpLD and have responded to this label in some way. Or, they are both.

These albeit very selective descriptors of the participants offer a partial answer for the question, in that they are different because of the categorical applicability of this descriptor, and its unavoidable consequences in educational policy and practice.

The findings of the literature review indicated that the wellbeing and students with SpLDs is best described in terms of self-concept or self-description. Therefore for student participants this secondary research question becomes

"How would you describe yourself?"

The literature identifies the importance of the 'dyslexic identity', and other identity based differences relating to the SpLDs (Farquhar, 2012; Elliott & Grigorenko, 2014). Therefore it is important that participants are able to interpret and respond to this specific question. The literature also describes specific traits and preferences that may relate to identity construction for students with SpLDs. Awareness of preferred approaches to learning / other tasks, and or different learning styles are one such example (Von Károlyi, et al., 2003; Silverman, 20009). Whether one considers themselves to be 'sporty', 'creative', or 'a bookworm', is relevant to self-concept (Rooke, 2015; Dixon, 2003). Reflection upon personal aptitudes, or future career goals, is similarly examining aspects of identity *'in evolutionis'* (Oyserman, 2013).

Internalised perspectives of the self are strongly related to mental health (Wright, Crawford & Del Castillo, 2009). The literature suggests that many participants in the study may have negative self-attributions because of their experience of having and SpLD (Ingesson, 2007; Alexander-

Passe, 2007). Kiziewicz and Biggs (2007) encourage researchers and professionals to consider the positive traits of SpLDs. The research question is careful to avoid negatively biasing the response, and therefore the interview questions (described in section 4.2.3.4) ensure that identity based questions are not relentlessly condemnatory, but rather encourage positive reflection.

The literature review highlighted the importance of policy and practice discourses in the construction of SpLDs from pedagogical perspectives (Armstrong, 2014). Identification or categorisation of students (whether managed through inclusive policies, or through exclusionary approaches) hinges upon professional perception of 'need', based on 'capability'; however capability includes both intellectual and social/emotional aspects of learning (Lackaye, et al., 2006). Considering the impact of the SpLD label on teacher/student interactions, this secondary research question for teacher participants becomes

"Do SpLDs need specially 'including'?"

Teachers make active choices about the level of support they provide individual students, or a group (Kirikkaya & Vurkaya, 2011; Jalongo, 2005). They also make these considerations based on their theoretical knowledge about SpLDs, and the availability of resources (Stewart, 2010). Therefore the interview questions (described in section 4.2.3.4) focus on the means of identifying different need, and the value or importance of that need to the wellbeing of those students. This is important to understand because teachers' attitudes towards SpLDs have been shown to be highly variable, and have the potential to put students at risk (Avramidis & Norwich, 2002; Sosu, Mtika & Colucci-Gray, 2010; Gwernan-Jones & Burden, 2010; Hornstra, et al., 2010).

The literature highlights a wide variety of ways that teachers aim to 'include' students with SpLDs (Porter & Lacey, 1999; Piombo, et al., 2003; Exley, 2003; Brooks, 2002; Tutty, White & Pascoe, 2005). Therefore the question is purposefully broad, in order to explore teachers' interpretation

of inclusive practice. Despite this 'inclusion' is a core part of the professional discourse, and therefore it is important to ask directly about this.

4.1.3.2 How does current teaching impact students?

The third phenomenon from section 3.1.1: The relationship between teaching methods and wellbeing, highlights the complexity of this relationship. In asking about the 'impact' of one aspect on another, there is an implied causal relationship; however positivist causality is incompatible with the intention of this study to represent individual experiences. This question differs from the primary research question, by exploring distinct perceptions, expectations, and experiences, rather than focussing on the nature of interconnections. The nature of a school as an institution, of which education is the principle output implies that education is 'being done to' students (Norris, 2007). Although modern educators may aspire towards more engaged interaction in the creation of the learning environment, the power differential between teachers (the school) and students is significant (Anderson & Grinberg, 1998). This secondary research question aims to evidence this.

Student participants experience multiple aspects of education, including designed and incidental aspects, instructional and inquisitional achievement goal structures, various types of activities, and variably inclusive classroom environments (Lackaye, et al., 2006; Shim, Cho & Wang, 2013). Students may recognise qualities of traits not only as good/bad, but in terms of the fulfilment of their own personal motivations, including social experiences and task preferences (Hofer, 2007; Cummins, 2005; Burden & Burdett, 2005). The study expects student participants to have some negative experiences, and that these may be traumatic for the participant. Therefore the interpretation of this secondary research question for student participants becomes

"What types of teaching work well for you? What does not?"

When interpreted for the student and teacher participant groups separately, increasing overlap becomes apparent. Examining preferred approaches to learning also constitutes reflection on the process of learning, and provides important descriptors of academic outcomes and the impact of differing styles of teaching and special support (Goodley, 2008). Students will have different levels of awareness of the intention and processes of teaching, and therefore student descriptions of teaching must be interpreted, in context, in order to understand their meaning to practitioners (Punch, 2002a, Casserly, 2011; Ingvarson & Rowe, 2008).

The interview questions (described in section 4.2.3.4) are based on the literature on inclusive teaching. They examine experiences between different academic subjects, the application of different core skills, and of different support and resources (Avramidis, Lawson & Norwich, 2010; Johnson, 2004; McPhillips, Bell & Doveston, 2010).

The recent literature on SpLDs promotes the use of inclusive teaching practices in order to make education accessible for students (British Dyslexia Association, 2012; Annable, Goggin & Stienstra, 2007). This is in contrast to earlier differentiation and exclusion policies, although in practice they are often concurrent (Richardson & Powell, 2011). Like numerous studies, this research aims to examine the suitability of learning environments for students with SpLDs through the lens of inclusion (Florian & Linklater, 2010).

As with the student participant interpretation of this secondary research question, overlap with other secondary research questions is revealed, but concerning a different concept – teacher attitude. For teacher participants this secondary research question becomes a reflexive inquiry

"How is your teaching inclusive? / How inclusive is your teaching?"

The literature review highlighted the importance of policy and professional development discourses in the construction of inclusive practice (MacFarlane & Woolfson, 2013; Burns & Bell, 2011; Mockler, 2005). The interview questions (described in section 4.2.3.4) explored teacher's examples from their own practice that they described as inclusive. Inclusive practice has many dimensions, and therefore interview questions examined pedagogy, policy, and ideology (Florian & Linklater, 2010; Florian & Black-Hawkins, 2010). The reflexive nature of this secondary research question was designed to potentiate critical reflection of pedagogical practice (Florian & Black-Hawkins, 2010). Contrastingly the nature of the question was also intended to expose evidence of performative teaching approaches and overt structural deferral (Alexander, Anderson & Gallegos, 2004; Ball, 2003).

4.1.3.3 What is the relationship between inclusion and wellbeing for students with SpLDs?

The third phenomenon from section 4.1.1: The relationship between teaching methods and wellbeing, notes the content of a causal relationship between the two phenomena. This secondary research question explores participant awareness of and/or attitudes towards the nature of a causal relationship between the two phenomena. It aims to encourage participants to consider hypothetical or imagined conditions, relating their theoretical or conceptual understanding. Simmons, Graham and Thomas (2015) argue that this approach can be emancipatory for potentially marginalised student voices. For teacher participant it may provide a challenge to pragmatic conceptions about inclusion (Richardson & Powell, 2011). Both sets of participants have fulfilled roles in the practical education environment, but may have ideas how things could be improved.

Each individual participant has their own emotional needs to be fulfilled, learning preferences, social relationships, and capabilities, and therefore this secondary research question aims to give participants the freedom to imagine their ideals.

For student participants the secondary research question is expressed as

"How does life at school make you feel?"

The literature identifies the priority of subjective wellbeing over objective wellbeing for students with SpLDs. Therefore eliciting feelings is the focus of this secondary research question.

The student interview questions approach this secondary research question in a different manner, by using tertiary prompts and expansion questions to explore some aspects of this secondary research question. This is because student participants may not be comfortable with answering intensive or direct questions about their emotional state or mental health, and this would present potential ethical issues and may also bias the responses (Save the Children, 2000). The interview questions extend other interview questions by asking about the emotional impact of phenomena the participants introduce, and by asking them to imagine potentially improved outcomes (Simmons, Graham & Thomas, 2015).

For teacher participants this secondary research question aims to reveal the extent to which wellbeing is 'on their radar', and to explore their understanding of the literature which indicates that students with SpLDs often experience comparatively poor wellbeing (Leonova, 2012; Mellard & Woods, 2007; Norwich & Kelly, 2010; Dagnan & Sandhu, 1999). Therefore the question remains the same

"What is the relationship between inclusion and wellbeing for students with SpLDs?"

Critical pedagogy argues that teachers should be engaged in thinking about meeting the needs of every child, and that they need a good understanding of different learning styles and learning difficulties (Anderson, 2006). The teacher interview questions (described in section 4.2.3.4) directly explore conceptions and understanding about inclusion and wellbeing.

4.2 Methods

4.2.1 Audience

The present study is targeted at both policy makers and practitioners. The hope is to highlight the risk to students' wellbeing where policies do not adequately support students inclusively. Policy makers in the context of the present study are both stratified, and quite varied. School governor and leadership teams are primarily target policy makers. The DfE is the second policy maker target audience. The present study will contain a succinct policy guidance section to enable policy makers to consider the implications of the study without reading the entire thesis and associated papers. Specific policies from schools featured in the present study will be explored, as well as specific government guidance and policy documents, in order to evaluate content and suggest improvements.

'Practitioner' is a broad term. In the current study the term refers to a target audience including teachers in all disciplines, teaching assistants, SEND staff, and some members of the school leadership team who hold dual roles as both practitioners and policy makers.

4.2.2 Participants

4.2.2.1 Student Participants

The population for the present study consisted of school students with SpLDs aged between 11 and 13 years old, selected from schools granting access for their students and staff to participate. The age of the population was determined based on several triangulating criteria. According to

Faria (1996) there is a fundamental difference in the construct of self-concept during later teenage years, compared with younger teenage years. Methodologically, sampling older teenagers would, therefore, require different psychometric measures than younger teenagers. Sexual maturation has a distorting effect on teens' emotional stability and social preferences. Although all studies acknowledge wide variation and outliers, an average of 14 years is given as the age when these effects are fully realised. Therefore the population is limited to participants under 14 years old. Students younger than 11 years may have only recently received their educational diagnoses, and so the effects of support may not yet be apparent. Many students are not diagnosed until attending secondary school (Jenkins, Hudson & Johnson, 2007). Combining this finding with the notable impact of the transition experienced by many students moving between primary and secondary school (Jordan, McRorie & Ewing, 2010), and the different teaching methods, the population will only contain students over the age of 11 years old. In some schools in the UK students are given the choice of studying vocational subjects, alongside other academic subjects (Young, 2011). This is typically an option for students from 14 years onward. Because this may particularly suit students with SpLDs, the present study wishes to observe the effects of typical academic schooling, as this is the most common practice. Therefore, again the population must be capped at 13 years old.

Participants in the population of the present study were previously assessed as having a formal diagnosis of an SpLD, by having a medical assessment, or by assessments carried out in school. The assessment of SpLDs is not an entirely consistent practice (Limbrick, Wheldall & Madelaine, 2008; King, Giess & Lombardino, 2007). The population contained participants who were identified by their school as having SpLDs including Dyslexia, Dyspraxia, Dyscalculia, and Dysgraphia. Some participants in the sample also had behavioural diagnoses or are recorded by their school as having behavioural difficulties. In the present study the only recorded needs are ADD, ADHD, and social and emotional needs. For each participant their school provided a short

statement summarising their learning support diagnoses and some detail of support provisions. Many participants have multiple needs recorded in their statement, and for the purpose of analysis these are categorised.

The population does not include many other comorbid conditions because these can have distinct independent effects on child wellbeing. Moderate learning difficulties and General Learning Disability are excluded from the population because individuals with these conditions have typically very different cognitive and social profiles to those with SpLDs. Furthermore schools were asked to discretely exclude potential participants from the sample who were known to have moderate to severe emotional difficulties where there was an outside independent factor known to the school – i.e. familial discontent, psychiatric history, and physical disability. The extraneous impact of these difficulties is documented in studies including Giacobbi, et al., 2008) and Osborne and McLanahan (2007), and in meta studies (Bradshaw & Richardson, 2009). Although the researcher acknowledges the limitation of

a) shortlisting particular *known* phenomena to exclude
b) excluding any participant based on phenomena represented in the general wider population, the likelihood of anomalous comorbidities presenting as outliers or skewing the relatively small sample, it has been deemed appropriate.

The sample for the present study consists of 74 participants. Biographical categorisations are detailed in Table 4.1.

	School A	School B	School C	School D	Total
Dyslexia	15	17	19	22	73
Dyspraxia	6	0	1	1	8
Dyscalculia	4	3	1	3	11
Behaviour Difficulties	2	5	5	5	17
Literacy Difficulties	6	4	6	2	18
Inclusive Support	15	2	6	12	35
Exclusive Support	0	10	12	6	28
TA support	0	2	2	3	7
SEN intervention	0	0	0	4	4
English Support	0	5	11	2	18
Behaviour intervention	0	2	2	2	6
Male	11	12	13	20	56
Female	4	5	6	3	18
N	15	17	19	23	74

Table 4.1 Student Sample Categories (N=74)

The sample in the current study was drawn from 4 schools with distinctly different profiles. Details of the schools can be seen in Table 4.2. The 4 schools were selected because they represented a diverse range of different practices. The study does not compare schools, but rather identified practices, and therefore the schools are not designed to be representative of a particular type of school.

Although each school has different characteristics, these are not categorised or used in statistical tests. The researcher acknowledges that the relatively small sample and lack of multiple representations of different types of school is a potential area for improvement in the study methodology and further study. Despite these limitations the current dataset still contains rich quantitative and qualitative data from 74 participants, and additional data from teachers who were also interviewed as part of the study.

4.2.2.2 Teacher Participants

The population for the present study consisted of teachers selected from schools granting access for their students and staff to participate. The selection of teacher participants was dependent on other aspects of the methodology. Classroom observations were conducted as part of the study based on three criteria that

a) classes contained clusters of student participants
b) teaching staff consented to having their class observed
c) that teachers taught academic classroom based subjects.

Only academic class subjects were selected because the observation criteria used in the study was not suitable to assess other activities. The reasons for the limited observation methodology are discussed in the design section below. Teaching staff that consented to being observed were subsequently recruited for interviews. The target recruitment from each school was 2 teacher participants; however, not all teacher participants consented to being interviewed. Additionally one teacher keen to be involved in the study was also recruited from school D. Details of these teacher participants as used in qualitative categorisations can be seen in Table 4.3. Therefore the selection of teacher participants in the sample was dependant on the student participant sampling. Teacher participants had a mixed profile, including 2 teachers who themselves have dyslexia. The teacher participants ranged from those with 2 or less years of teachers, to over 30 years of experience.

Pseudonym	N Participants	Description
School A	15	An independent specialist school that specialises in supporting students with SpLDs. Multisensory teaching is standard practice for all subjects, and there is a strong community atmosphere. Therapeutic relaxation and motivation strategies are integrated into education, and there is a high teacher to student ratio. Students at the school have often had damaging experiences in main stream school, and their SpLDs are atypically problematic.
School B	17	A state run academy in an economically deprived area of a city. The school has undergone significant redesign as the school was previously in special measures. There are a high number of students with specific learning difficulties and other needs, and high levels of social/emotional behavioural disorders related to issues of aspiration. There is a specialist program to support engagement, and numerous vocational programs.
School C	19	A state academy in a rural setting. There is a wide focus on using technology for learning – including personal iPads for all students, and the SEN department has a research driven approach. The approach allows the department to target support very effectively; however as a result many students learn separated from their peers.
School D	23	A state academy in a rural town that is home to a county wide dyslexia service – a consultancy and intervention service that provides expertise, training, and practical interventions to students. This gives the unique access to specialist resources to support both students and staff.

Table 4.2 School Profiles for the Categorisation of the Sample

	English Teacher	Maths Teacher	Science Teacher	Art Teacher	SENCO	I have Dyslexia	Male	Female	*N*
School A	1	1	0	0	2	0	1	1	2
School B	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
School C	0	0	1	0	1	1	1	0	1
School D	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	2	3
Total	3	1	2	1	4	2	3	4	***7***

Table 4.3 Teacher Samples Categories (N=7)

4.2.3 Design

4.2.3.1 Quantitative Wellbeing

Quantitative methods have been used extensively in measuring wellbeing and in working with children (Bradshaw, Hoelscher & Richardson, 2006; Cummins, et al., 2004; Ryff & Keyes, 1995). Childhood wellbeing is recognised as being developmental (Marsh & O'Mara, 2008; Malmberg & Little, 2007). Therefore models of wellbeing must be able to measure aspects of wellbeing, relative to typical developmental stages. Some studies use 'indicators' of wellbeing, rather than direct measures of wellbeing with children. In this approach researchers predict wellbeing from observable signs of social, emotional and psychological development. By recognising the significance of these interactions, behaviours and processes, researchers can comment on the wellbeing of the children in terms of these pervasive dimensions (Wong, Chang & he, 2009; Keyes, 2006a; Keyes, 2006b).

There is a distinction between psychological and emotional wellbeing. Emotional wellbeing is affective feelings – the aspect of wellbeing that is driven by raw emotion, and not critically appraised (Urbis, 2011; Ryff & Keyes, 1995; Dolan & Metcalfe, 2012; White, 2008). Psychological wellbeing is the subjective evaluation of the self, both personally and socially. Psychological wellbeing is cognitively based evaluation. It reflects the aspects of wellbeing that can be seen to develop into the adult construct of wellbeing (Ryff & Keyes, 1995).

One methodological approach to studying emotional and psychological wellbeing is life satisfaction. It is justifiable as an approach for either construct, depending on mental development, without the need to gauge this construct specifically (Seligson, Huebner & Valois, 2003). Life satisfaction measures are not used to this effect in all studies though, where some fail

to recognise this flexibility. Measures of life satisfaction used as measures of wellbeing typically come in two types: general life satisfaction, and domain specific satisfaction.

Huebner, Gilman, & Laughlin (1999) use the Student Life Satisfaction Scale (SLSS) to investigate wellbeing. The relationship between the SLSS and other aspects of wellbeing are well documented. The measure consists of 5 items, so is a short and simple measure to use. Questions are worded as evaluations of aspects of emotionality. This is a highly flexible approach that is beneficial as it avoids either weighting or ascribing these qualities to the assessment, rather this is naturally selected by the participants approach. This, therefore, is a strong fit for the developmental model of wellbeing. This measure has been praised for the robustness of their scale construct (for instance – Rees, Goswami & Bradshaw, 2010). A brief multidimensional version of the scale (BMSLSS) was also created. It incorporated specific domains, in a concise tool.

The key distinction between the BMSLSS and SLSS was that the question items varied the domain referred to using subjective language. This scale was validated, and used in numerous other studies of wellbeing (Seligson, Huebner, & Valois, 2003; Huebner, et al., 2005; Athay, Kelley & Dew-Reeves, 2012). The BMSLSS measures satisfaction of life on 5 domains: family, friendships, school, self, living environment. The measure was designed to assess overall life satisfaction of children and youth, to provide a profile of children and youth's satisfaction with important specific life domains, to demonstrate acceptable psychometric properties. It can be used with children across varying ages and ability levels, and is sufficiently brief to fit work alongside other measures. The BMSLSS is conducted as a self-Report with 7-points, from Delighted to Terrible, where 1=terrible, to 7=delighted (Seligson, Huebner & Valois, 2003).

Combined models for psychological wellbeing such as the Psychological Wellbeing Battery (PWB), and the Self-Description Questionnaire (SDQ-II) include a selection of questions that correspond

to two different internal models of psychological wellbeing. Both these measures are widely used and have extensive support, however PWB has been criticised for

a) not catering enough towards the needs of children (Keyes, 2006b)
b) for including questions that overlap – although this is a conceptual rather than a methodological issue (Ryan & Deci, 2001).

The centrality of self-description / self-concept in psychological wellbeing for children has been identified by many (Craven & Marsh, 2008). Self-concept models such as the SDQ-II are a strong measure of how psychological wellbeing is experienced, rather than how it is observed or interpreted. For this reason the SDQ-II is favoured over the PWB. Although other self-concept scales do exist, the choice in the literature is consistently the SDQ-II (Byrne, 1996; Lieberman, et al., 2001).

The SDQII (Marsh, 1992) is designed to measure multiple dimensions of self-concept for adolescents. The SDQII is designed to measure four non-academic areas (Physical Ability, Physical Appearance, Peer Relations, and Parents Relations), three academic areas (Reading, Mathematics, and School in general), and a global perception of self. Consonant with developmental theory, the peer relations subscale in the SDQII is made more specific by tapping perceived social relations with same-sex peers and opposite-sex peers (i.e., two subscales in lieu of one). Beyond this change, the SDQII includes two additional subscales: Emotional Stability and Honesty/Trustworthiness. The scale has 51 items in total, which is self-reported on a 6-point Likert scale ranging from 1(False: Not like me at all; it isn't like me at all) to 6(True: This statement describes me well; it is very much like me). The scale has widely been used with diverse adolescent populations, and has been translated and validated in numerous languages for international use (Mucherah & Finch, 2010; ValÅs, 1999).

The procedure and use of measures is described in section 4.5.1 below.

4.2.3.2 Qualitative Wellbeing

Qualitative methods have been used extensively to study wellbeing, but have been less popular for studying children. Qualitative research on wellbeing usually refers to semi-structured interviews or interactive activities on topics relating to judgement, preferences, or other subjective judgements (Jones & Sumner, 2009). Docherty and Sandelowski (1999) describe how qualitative methods can provide more accurate and complete data when studying children. Children are less able to understand the appropriate or relevant answer to research questions, or are more likely to be influenced by numerous biases in giving answers to questions.

Using a semi-structured interview as part of a mixed model can have several advantages. Primarily a qualitative perspective could be used to situate and add richer contextual information to quantitative findings from the rest of the study. This approach was taken by Norwich and Kelly (2010), in studying social experiences of children. Additionally using a semi-structured interview provides an opportunity for the researcher to check a degree of comprehension with the participant, possibly about key terms or concepts. This can be important with children whose vocabulary may be less accurate than an adult researcher's. It is important that research is able to meet the needs of the participants, and with children one of the needs is to scaffold idea exploration, and nurture conceptual development (Crivello, Camfield & Woodhead, 2008). The amount of interpretation involved with a semi-structured interview depends on the questions, and on the researcher. The opportunity exists for the interviewer to engage the participant in self-analysis and conceptual analysis, so that the resulting interview portrays the perspective of the participant.

Although Grounded theory would present challenges in working with children due to issues of fluency and comprehension, utilising aspects of grounded theory approach will be beneficial in the present study. As a purely data driven approach it eliminates theoretical biases and

researcher subjectivities. Armstrong and Humphrey (2008) explore wellbeing and personal history for adults diagnosed as dyslexic when entering university. Ensuring minimal bias in interview methods, and facilitating participant lead responses will lead to more robust data. Because wellbeing is a broad and pervasive aspect of the self that is affected by all aspects of experience, it is important to not limit the scope of participant responses. This idea was central in the formation of the questions asked when interviewing student participants.

Question areas were chosen in concordance with the model of wellbeing explored psychometrically – where child wellbeing is represented by age appropriate self-concept and life satisfaction (Huebner, Gilman & Laughlin, 1999). The questions represented broad areas within the age appropriate model in a way that related to inclusive practice. The interview therefore served to assess both wellbeing and inclusive practice from the student participant perspective. As a measure of inclusive practice questions were designed to explore a wide range of features, including classroom environment, teaching styles, formats of work, interactive and integrative activities, and direct support. These questions were designed based on the secondary research questions described in section 4.1.2. The relationship between secondary research questions and interview questions for both student and teacher participants is described in section 4.2.3.4.

Research with children on issues that are potentially sensitive benefits from gateway procedure or a mix of methods (Punch, 2002a). Using warm-up or gateway activities also is ethically advisable. When entering the child's world and asking them to expose their truths through the research process, it is important to allow the participant to control the way in which this process unfolds (Murray, 2011). Punch (2002a) explores the effect that competencies have on expression and participation in research with children. Using a mix of visual and traditional methods, Punch explains the benefits of not assuming children are 'in-competent', and instead treating them as much like adults as is possible in research projects. This, Punch suggests allows children to

demonstrate their competences (or lack there-of). Punch suggests that the only compensation that is useful is to bridge the gap in familiarity of children communicating or sharing with adults (2002b). Visual methods can therefore be used a gateway exercise in research with children.

Visual research is often able to display expressive or emotionally qualitative ideas in ways that it can be hard to achieve in words (Buckingham, 2009; Thomson & Hall, 2008). Belton (2000) argues that visual methods enable children to produce with more affect and less conscious involvement. O'Connell (2012) praises the use of visual methods when researching children, suggesting that visual methods may lead to richer outcomes, and that such processes may invoke deeper or more relevant results. Belton disagrees however, suggests that social desirability or other cognitive appraisals may influence more traditional research gathering. Overall visual methods are strongly supported in the literature; however, how usable the results of visual methods are, may depend on the nature of what is being studied. Punch (2001) asked children some broad questions, and then gave children cameras to go and take 6 six photos that relate to this. Punch identifies some minor drawbacks of the method, including children perhaps not listening to the questions; however there were many advantages to the method. Training children to use the camera gave the researcher the opportunity to demonstrate the type of images that the researchers were looking for. In discussion about why participants had chosen to take each of their photos, Punch identified an important opportunity to deeply explore how the images were situated.

The procedure and use of measures is described in section 4.5.1 below.

4.2.3.3 Exploring Inclusion

Research methods for inclusive practice are widely varied. The tendency to want to measure or quantify inclusion is often criticised (Lindsay, 2003; Sebba & Sachdev, 1997). Primarily this comes from the view that inclusion goes beyond individual practices or behaviours, but is rather an ideology and attitude that practitioners aspire towards (Paliokosta & Blandford, 2010; Florian, 2008).

Observing children in the classroom setting is a common way for teachers or researchers to develop a better understanding of how their students respond to interventions, or behave in the classroom (Wragg, 1999). The process of observing children is often designed to be an objective view of specific observable events / characteristics / types of interactions / etc. and therefore observation schedules are commonly used (Croll, 1986). Observation in the classroom is rife with complications, contradictions, and implications for teaching staff, students, and the quality of the research findings (Foster, 1996). Observers need to 'know' enough to categorically identify an observed action / behaviour / interaction (Wragg, 1999). However observation schedules for children can be very teacher-oriented, and may not lead to findings that accurately reflect the experiences of subject, or may lack depth to understand crucial 'invisible' factors, such as the motivations of children, when studying a new intervention (Croll, 1986). The Hawthorne effect states that observers have an impact on the settings that they observe just by being present, however this can be reduced by customising suitable methods for the context (Wragg, 1999).

Student-centred teaching observation criteria are concerned with the extent to which students strengths and weaknesses are catered for, and how students are engaged in learning about their own process of learning, and how lesson structure / content is flexible to meet the specific needs of individual students. In assessing an inclusive paradigm there is a need to examine the extent to which teaching styles facilitate constructivist group work and knowledge creation, using the

different strengths of all learners. The primary research question derives from concerns that some learners suffer and become marginalised in classroom settings that operate on a traditional paradigm (Lewis, Ecclestone & Lund, 2015). The Exeter Schedule observes the interaction between students and between students and teachers. One of the advantages of this is that observers can track the way in which teachers then follow up interactions with students in relation to their response (Wragg, 1999). This involves the observer making some judgements about the quality of interaction, rather than just frequency.

Observation schedules or recording methods that combine field analyses with objective observations can be beneficial. Rizvi (2010) uses this approach in examining the ongoing development of teachers. Rizvi distinguishes the need to examine the results in the classroom as a means to study development, from a need to understand the situated teaching methods that lead to positive or negative outcomes. Rizvi's measure is based on 6 identified standards of good teaching. Using a similar method, but replacing the standards for those of inclusive practice would suit the present study.

Situated learning perspectives are widely seen as opposed to cognitive learning perspectives (Cobb & Bowers, 1999). Cognitive approaches to observing teaching activity can however be both student centred and instruction centred. Artz and Armour-Thomas (1999) demonstrate how cognitive perspectives on tasks, the classroom environment, and even student-student interaction can be assessed in this way. Cognitive social learning theory explains the significance of learning with peers and other strategies of instructional design. For the current research question, the critical enquiry to inclusive practices should aim to be informed by a recognition that situated learning and cognitive learning theories naturally coexist (Arvaja, et al., 2007; Bereiter, 1997). To assess inclusive teaching practices for students with SpLDs, it is necessary to assess the characteristics of the environment and teaching style, in relation to

a) learning needs or deficits

b) secondary effects of these

Assessing the quality of an intervention to target issues around motivation is as essential as assessing interventions for cognitive deficits, such as learning styles. Attention / motivation is also a feature of a cognitive model of reading, and so cognitive inclusive measures can be used in the same way, applying the aforementioned criteria underpinning the central quality of egality in inclusion. Other secondary effects with SpLDs are more social. Assessing the quality of inclusive interventions that focus on manipulating or controlling social aspects of the classroom in order to achieve quality inclusive education cannot be assessed using cognitive psychology measures. Measuring social aspects of inclusion can however be achieved within a cognitive framework. Viewing education from a social constructivist perspective, engagement, social reward, and learner complexity can be represented cognitively (Kugelmass, 2007). This is supported by classic Vygotskian learning theory, in which interaction enriches the quality of learning. Measures and observation techniques should assess actualised interventions by teaching staff.

Artz and Armour-Thomas (1999) devised a framework (the Phase-Dimension Framework) for examining these aspects in different phases of teaching simultaneously. Unlike more traditional objective observation schedules that divide up time, characterised activities or segments of the lesson are assessed by the researchers. Artz and Armour-Thomas use their approach to analyse simultaneously occurring events. The Phase-Dimension Framework (Artz & Armour-Thomas, 1999) is divided into 3 categories, and 9 sub-categories overall. The main categories are tasks, learning environment, and discourse. Each sub-category provides a statement explaining the properties or qualities to be observed. This method requires the observer to make critical notes in the field, and therefore the observer needs to be an ‘expert’. Classroom materials (i.e. handouts, teaching slides, and anything else related to a task that is not a behaviour or an

interaction are assessed after the lesson. This leaves the observer time to focus on behavioural, interactive, and discursive elements. Artz and Armour-Thomas' framework is the most relevant known approach for the current study.

For the current study an observational schedule was designed that emulated the design and structure of the Phase-Dimension Framework, but altered the targets of the observation to look for traits within teaching and learning that could be identified as inclusive. This observation schedule, the Secondary Classroom Inclusion Framework (SCIF) was created to capture data on inclusive practices, including detailed examples, comparison against pre-defined standards of inclusive practice, and indirect or inherent consequences of interventions and/or teaching styles of observed.

Measuring inclusive practice is a contentious issue in some of the literature (Booth & Ainscow, 2011; Lindsay, 2007). This is partly because some aspects of inclusion are not obviously apparent in a classroom observation (Florian, 2014). Inclusive measures including teaching different abilities together, additional support outside class, or school wide policies and programmes to provide guidance/safeguarding/etc. may not be apparent (Florian, Black-Hawkins & Rouse, 2016). Some studies have argued that the effectiveness of teachers cannot be determined or evaluated based on observations alone (Rivkin, Hanushek, & Kain, 2005). This is because focus on materials for homework, and tutorial sessions may constitute a teaching approach. The relationship between teachers and their students is also considered crucial to the teaching outcomes (Boulton, 2008; Clark, 2008). Florian and Spratt (2013) overcome these challenges in their observation framework by separating principle pedagogic approaches from how they may be manifested in practice. Their framework for inclusive practice examines learning, social justice, and professional development. This conceptually connective approach is supported by interview data to add additional context.

Despite these critiques, student-teacher interaction is of particularly importance in inclusive teaching (Mayer & Masser, 2003). A significant part of learning comes from the delivery of classroom teaching. Goe and Croft (2010) suggest that when evaluating the process of teaching (rather than learning), then observations are the appropriate method. Booth and Ainscow (2011) define three main dimensions to school inclusion, in the *Index for Inclusion* – Policies, Cultures, and Practices. Although their approach stresses the importance of interpreting and developing inclusive standards through exploring social constructions, stakeholder values, and individual experiences, they recognise that the outcome and measure of many aspects of inclusion is practices, and changing teaching practices. The Index for Inclusion is too broad a framework to examine the inclusivity of classrooms in the present study because the framework has too broad a remit for different types of inclusivity to consider. However failing to investigate broad social dimensions of inclusion would constitute limiting definition (Mcmaster, 2014; Florian, 2014), in the present study. Therefore this study also explored these aspects in an interview with teachers. The aims and function of different aspects of the study are outlined in section 4.2.3.5.

The working definition of inclusion used in this study is of those practices, cultures, policies, relationships, and aspects of the learning environment which either explicitly or passively support the inclusion of the students with SpLDs. As discussed in section 2.4, this does not exclude inclusive means which have the potential to include students who do not have SpLDs, or who have other learning support needs, or cultural, religious, socio-economic or other reasons why they may be deemed a marginalised group who may benefit from 'inclusion'. Furthermore the working definition for this study specifically includes approaches to supporting students with SpLDs that have been demonstrated to be successful in helping overcoming challenges to educational engagement (including core academic capabilities). These included approaches are drawn from the literature on dyslexia remediation, as well as the broader and more inclusive SpLD literature.

Booth (1996) suggests that practitioners and researchers must identify where different practices sit on a spectrum of inclusiveness, and then work towards increasingly more inclusive participation. Therefore in the present study it is appropriate that the SCIF draws on the literature which describes some of the practices in these gradations. The SCIF provides descriptions of 3 levels of inclusivity for each of the 22 dimensions. The dimensions and sub-categories were derived from a selection of research that identifies inclusive and accessible learning approaches, and the literature on research measures of inclusive practice. The section below details the key areas and significant research, and summarises their relationship to individual sub-categories in the SCIF.

The main categories are tasks, learning environment, and culture. These categories contain sub-category indicators (7, 9, and 6 respectively). These broad categories are all measured by observation. The purpose is not to objectively measure inclusion using this approach, but rather to provide context and evidence to explore alongside teacher and student interview data. For this reason the observation criteria were selected from meta-analytic studies that provided broad guidance, rather than trialled focus on specific interventions. Prior to teaching commencing, the researcher makes note of features of the classroom, including room layout, class size, fixed resources, and environmental conditions such as temperature. This then leaves time to focus on behavioural, interactive, and discursive elements of the teaching.

The Rose Report (Rose, 2009) was used as the initial basis for the sub-category criteria for the SCIF because of its renowned contribution to the development of policy and practice (Pitt & Soni, 2017; Troeva, 2015). The Rose report has also been influential in changes to inclusive teaching policy and practice in the intervening years (Martinelli & Camilleri, 2016). The Rose Report describes and categorises the relationship between different classroom adjustments and

teaching strategies that have been proven to be successful in supporting students with SpLDs, and presents them as accommodations that can be made within regular teaching strategies.

Reading comprehension can be a barrier to accessing and engaging in learning (Rose, 2009; Ainscow, Booth & Dyson, 2006; Ritchie, Della Sala & McIntosh, 2011). These can be supported in several ways, including:

a) Scaffolding tools to bridge the accessibility gap to knowledge and learning engagement
b) Teachers providing personal or more flexible learning resources to better accommodate pace and other requirements
c) Teaching to promote engagement and support / verify understanding

Scaffolding tools can be highly individualised interventions that support the individual in accessing the learning (Milner, 2017; Abas, 2011). Some students with SpLDs use voice recorders or dictionaries for this (Rose, 2009). This can allow them to access material at their own pace. Other sources recommend broader access to tools to such as visual aids, specific vocabulary instruction, or ICT tools, as part of a more inclusive style (Green & Reid, 2016; Stacey, 2010). Providing access to scaffolding tools and other inclusive resources is a teaching strategy (Green & Reid, 2016). Students should be guided in their use of inclusive tools, and tools should be available to any students who feel they may benefit from it (Matthews, 2009).

Spelling and writing difficulties can inhibit academic performance and output for students with SpLDs (Rose, 2009; Berninger & Wolf, 2009). Writing difficulties can be supported by:

a) Availability of digital tools including a laptop, voice recognition, voice recorders
b) Prompts, scaffolds and other practical aids for handwriting and spelling, such as rubrics
c) Teaching strategies that intrinsically guide and develop capabilities, or that provide multisensory support

Writing or copying at pace may prove a particular challenge for some students with SpLDs (Green & Reid, 2016). Therefore teachers should make the teaching more accessible by not requiring students to copy large amounts from the whiteboard. Individual handouts, including instructions for homework, help to ensure that the student has an accurate basis for undertaking tasks (Rose, 2009; Green & Reid, 2016). Teachers can support students with SpLDs by changing the emphasis of task output from written modalities, to other forms (*or accept multiple formats*) (Green & Reid, 2016; Briggs, 2015). '*Computers can remove time and energy consuming tasks that are not central to the main learning objectives*' (Rose, 2009, p. 125). This enables students to demonstrate their knowledge and understanding, and attain without constantly being held back by poor writing or spelling skills (Rose, 2009; Montgomery & Marks, 2006). This may also allow students to experience greater achievement or success, where they may excel in producing more creative works (Kiziewicz & Biggs, 2007). The Rose report highlights the importance of this towards improving motivation and engagement, noting that (Rose, 2009, p. 120):

> *"Nothing succeeds like success"*

Students with SpLDs may have difficulties with sequencing their work, following implicit or progressive routines of classroom activity (Brosnan, et al., 2002). As discussed in Chapter 2, most studies indicate that this relates to differences or difficulties with working memory and attention. Rose (2009) recommends that teaching strategies need to provide explicit sequencing in and between tasks, and that transferable skills and/or achievements should be explicitly noted and developed. Furthermore the Rose Report recommends that students have access to planning and structuring resources, to allow them to work independently, whilst having these organisational protocols scaffolded (Green & Reid, 2016).

Rose (2009) also highlights the comorbidity of SpLDs and attention and concentration difficulties. Students with SpLDs show an increased ability to concentrate and maintain attention when

teachers use a variety of teaching of methods, and when multisensory learning techniques are applied (Kiziewicz & Biggs, 2007; Pennington, et al., 1996). This is because personalised approaches are often required to accommodate these learners (Stacey, 2010). Some students may particularly struggle if tasks require extensive use of working memory in planning (Pennington, et al., 1996). Alternatives or scaffolding tools are recommended (Green & Reid, 2016).

The Rose Report (Rose 2009) also explores the specific emotional and psychosocial learning needs of students with SpLDs. Section 3.3 explores the relationship between negative impacts on wellbeing relating to the learning experience for students with SpLDs, and how this can continue to impact their self-esteem, identity, motivation, mood, and social skills (Alexander-Passe, 2006; Lackaye, et al., 2006; Ferguson, 2006). Rose (2009, p. 121) highlights that the impact of SpLDs on learning can be exacerbated by the resultant disaffection. In the classroom these problems can be supported by:

a) Positive reinforcement and praise
b) Promoting the validity of 'alternative' contributions and working formats
c) Managing classroom grouping to promote social cohesion and varied inputs

Brooks (2007, p. 31) says that:

> *"Working on children's self-esteem and reading in parallel has definite potential …Building strong and trusting relationships between teacher and child is an essential prerequisite for accelerating learning"*

Although some aspects of this are visible in the classroom as 'Adjustments to the classroom environment' and 'Teaching strategies', there are aspects which are:

a) Part of an extended network of support (Rose, 2009, p. 123)

b) Visible in the classroom, but not acknowledged by this model

Based on the Rose Report, an initial structure for the classroom observation in the present study was constructed. It was separated into 'Adjustments' and 'Strategies', with sub-categories in each area. Language from the Rose Report and supporting literature was used to delineate quality (see Table 4.4 below).

Adjustments	**1**	**2**
Scaffolding tools	Poor/no scaffolding tools available	Appropriate scaffolding tools available for reading, writing, memory, planning, etc. – i.e. rubrics
Whiteboard usage	Whiteboard used for copying from	Whiteboard not use for copying large amounts of text
Accessible ICT	ICT not available in the classroom	Availability of digital tools including a laptop, voice recognition, voice recorders
Handouts	Handouts not available to guide task	Clear handouts providing complete information required for task completion at own pace
Strategies	**1**	**2**
Promotion of alternative options	No or limited alternative tasks	Alternative tasks appraised / celebrated equal to other tasks / diverse skills celebrated
Sequencing	No or limited interventions to support variable pacing, nor task progression	Explicit structured development between tasks, with flexible pacing
Student grouping	Students not strategically grouped	Students grouped together to promote social cohesion and varied inputs
Praise / reinforcement	No praise or negative reinforcement	SpLD student contributions praised
Celebrate creativity	Only written / traditional work welcomed	Creative / non-written contributions encouraged
Incorporate student knowledge	Global goal structures define success	Learning structures highlight and reflect individual progress
Work structures	Mostly written work / use of books / etc.	Variety of teaching methods used / multimodal / interactive tasks

Table 4.4 Initial Observation Structure based on Rose Report

The Rose report's structure for inclusive support interventions for students with SpLDs in the form of 'Adjustments to the classroom environment' and 'Teaching strategies' is a useful and

extremely practical set of criteria for adapting or evaluating the classroom learning experience (Pitt & Soni, 2017; Troeva, 2015). However the Rose report does not meet all the requirements for this study, because this study emphasises exploring inclusion.

The Index for Inclusion (Booth & Ainscow, 2011) is a tool for researching and developing inclusive practice in schools. It has been developed in UK schools based on government guidelines for inclusive practices. The Index for Inclusion aims to support schools in becoming more inclusive for all marginalised and other learners and staff alike - not just with a focus on the support for SEN or SpLD needs. Inclusive education should be based on a whole school approach. This is reflected in the structure of the Index for Inclusion. This social model of disability emphasises the importance of positive responses and values, and the benefits of diversity.

As discussed in section 2.3.2 inclusive teaching goes beyond practices – it is an ideology (Florian, 2008). Inclusive policies and practices are derived from critical analysis of the social and societal impacts of practice which could be damaging (Kavale, 2002). Interventions are therefore themselves often explorative rather than prescriptive, and engaged rather than separate (Vellutino, et al., 2004; Brooks, 2002; Richardson & Powell, 2011). As such the observable artefacts of inclusion in the classroom may not only be recognised by profiling cognitively designed instruction, but also the social, moral, and emotional aspects.

The Index for Inclusion (Booth & Ainscow, 2011) presents categorised indicators for inclusive education. The primary and secondary dimensions are:

A) *Creating inclusive cultures*
    1) *Building Community*
    2) *Establish Inclusive Values*
B) *Producing inclusive policies*
    1) *Developing the School for All*

2) *Organising Support for Diversity*

C) *Evolving inclusive practices*

1) *Orchestrating Learning*

2) *Mobilising Resources*

There are also tertiary indicators, for which the Index for Inclusion (Booth & Ainscow, 2011, p. 42) provides exploratory questions. These are included in Appendix 8.3.1.

As previously discussed the purpose of the SCIF is to observe features of inclusive practice relevant to SpLDs in secondary school classrooms. In order to ensure that the SCIF appropriately represented the aspects of the Index for Inclusion (Booth & Ainscow, 2011), and other literature involved in its development, a careful selective process was undertaken. Extending the selection of indicators from the Rose Report (see Table 4.4), the Index for Inclusion was used to contributed further dimensions. The critical and explorative qualities of the Index for Inclusion were maintained by using its own questions to guide the inclusion of particular tertiary indicators.

As previously discussed, many aspects of inclusion cannot be directly observed, however with some dimensions we can rely on observing the manifestation of their existence (Avramidis & Norwich, 2002; Florian, 2014). The Index for Inclusion tertiary indicators provide a rich and detailed selection of criteria. This approach is supported by Florian and Spratt (2013), who separate inclusive pedagogic principles and how they may be manifested, in their observation framework. Examples of this may include:

- Culture of celebrating diversity borne through explicit value laden curriculum content (Morcom & MacCallum, 2012)
- Rules or procedures that staff and/or students are observed adhering to (or punished for not adhering to) (Miller, Ferguson and Byrne, 2000)

- Practices of labelling or exclusionary processes (Drew & Atter, 2008)
- School wide or external resource availability in the classroom for some/all students (Peluso, 2012)
- SEN/SpLD streaming/differentiation/exclusion (Richardson & Powell, 2011)
- Are teaching assistants managing individualised learning for some students?

To what extent is there observable input/attention from the main classroom teacher? (Jordan, Schwartz & McGhie-Richmond, 2009)Table 4.5 below outlines *some* examples of where indicator questions from the Index for Inclusion (Booth & Ainscow, 2011) contributed to the SCIF. The table is not an exhaustive list of the contributions or interpretations from the Index.

Indicator Questions	Contribution	Rationale
C.1.1.xii – "Is there a variety of activities?"	TASKS->Work Structure (1,2) More variety better, interactive and multimedia better	SpLDs struggle with traditional teaching formats which are predominantly reading/writing based (Norwich & Black, 2015). SpLDs should be encouraged to be more interactive in the classroom to improve self-esteem (Roe & Aspinall, 2011).
C.1.2.iii – "Do lessons build on student knowledge and experience?" **C.1.1.xv – "Are lessons adapted so that students with physical or sensory impairments can learn with light and sound?"** **C.1.1.vi – "Do lessons encourage a view of learning as continuous, rather than completed with particular tasks?"**	TASKS->Work structure (3) Multimodal learning tasks Pupil input and experience Project based learning	Multisensory teaching for SpLDs can help overcome frustrations with reading/writing learning tasks (Baines, 2008). Project based learning structures benefit engagement and support for success driven outcomes (Norwich & Black, 2015)
C.1.2.viii – "Can students record their work in a variety of ways" **C.1.4.xvi – "Are students given a choice over activities?"** **C.1.4.xv – "Are students involved in finding ways to overcome their own difficulties with learning"**	TASKS->Range of Formats Choice to guide own approach to learning/achieving tasks. Understanding and value placed on choice of approach	Schools are required to provide information in a range of formats to accommodate different learning needs (Briggs, 2015, p. 3). Students are more engaged and have improved self-esteem when their alternative contributions are celebrated (Kizeiwicz & Biggs, 2007).

Table 4.5 Indicator Question Use in the Construction of the SCIF

C.1.3.iii – "Are there opportunities for students to work with other who differ from themselves (background, impairments, etc.)?"	LEARNING ENVIRONMENT->Group work strategies Strategic mixed groups better, and improved by recognising widest remit of potential contributions	SpLD groups are specifically vulnerable due to social comparison effects because educational segregation and supported inclusion both magnify this effect (Norwich & Kelly, 2010; Dagnan & Sandhu, 1999).
C.1.3.vi – "Do learning activities develop an understanding of differences of culture, ethnicity, gender, impairment, etc.?"	CULTURE->Explicit Inclusive values taught Diverse materials reduce discriminatory attitudes	It is important that teachers as role models convey positive attitudes and values about marginalised and diverse groups, in order for students include these groups (Clarke & Drudy, 2006).
C.2.1.iii – "Do students with more knowledge or skill an area sometimes tutor those with less?" **C.2.1.vi - "Is everyone, irrespective of attainment or impairment seen to make an important contribution?"**	LEARNING ENVIRONMENT-> Social/intellectual climate Everyone valued. Students able to help one another	Students receiving support from peers is more inclusive than use of TAs (Giangreco, 2010). Self-esteem boosted by highlighting and promoting diverse skills, and imbuing responsibility to students whose contributions are different (Fox, 2010, p. 10).
C.1.9.ii – "Are TAs attached to a curriculum area, rather than particular students?" **C.1.8.iii – "Do teachers engage in partnership teaching?"** **C.1.9.ix – "Is the space in the classroom organised so that TAs can work with a range of individuals?"** **C.1.9.iv – "Do TAs aim to make students independent of support?"**	LEARNING ENVIRONMENT->Co-teaching focus It is better for teaching assistants to be there for the class, than for individuals, and better still if they are contributors to the teaching of the class	TAs with greater experience and qualification are able to better promote inclusion, however teaching assistants are often not utilised to support inclusion (Moran & Abbott, 2002). TAs are often restricted to working with a minority, and this reduces these students independence. TAs need to have a more equal role I the classroom (Devecchi, et al., 2012).
C.1.6.xi – ""Are there a variety of ways of demonstrating and assessing learning that engages with differences in students' characters, interests and the range of their skills?"	LEARNING ENVIRONMENT->Monitoring engagement	By monitoring student wellbeing alongside academic output, teachers can better predict the need for interventions (Reid, Elbeheri & Everatt, 2017). Motivation is required for learning to take place. Comprehension and presentation of information are crucial to improving engagement.
C.1.2.iii – "Do lessons build on student knowledge and experience?" **C.1.2.xvi – "Do staff recognise the mental effort involved for students with some impairments"** **C.1.2.ii – "Is there an attempt to view teaching and support from the point of view of students?"** **C.1.1.ix – ""Does planning reflect on and attempt to minimise barriers to learning and participation for certain students?"**	CULTURE->Pressure and Questions Alternatives to confrontational / on the stop questions and reading aloud should be found. Students' dignity is respected.	Children and adults with SpLDs can experience stress and embarrassment when asked to read aloud or to respond 'on the spot' to questions' (Evans, 2014a; Farrar, 2014, p. 19). Adult experiences of shame and embarrassment of SpLD linked to awkward school experiences which exemplify difference (Sideridis, 2007; Mellard & Woods, 2007).

Table 4.5 (… continued) Indicator Question Use in the Construction of the SCIF

Addressing and integrating each indicator question was a distinct process which varied depending on the factors previously discussed; however the process can be summarised in terms of an overview of the process, and an overview of the outcomes below.

1) Criteria selected from the 'Evolving inclusive practices' category of the Index for Inclusion indicator framework (Booth and Ainscow, 2011) suitable for observation are subsumed into the Rose Report (Rose, 2009) criteria
    a. 'Mobilising Resources' are subsumed into 'Adjustments to the classroom environment', and renamed LEARNING ENVIRONMENT
    b. 'Orchestrating Learning' are subsumed into 'Teaching strategies', and renamed TASKS
2) Use relevant indicator questions from the Index for Inclusion to critically assess and add depth to the criterion for each subcategory, utilising wider literature for support
3) Observable manifestations of indicators from the 'Creating inclusive cultures' and 'Producing inclusive policies' categories from the Index for Inclusion relevant to SpLDs are divided between CULTURE and TASKS
    a. Cultures embodied as practices become CULTURE
    b. Where there is duplication or overlap, the indicator joins CULTURE
4) Use relevant indicator questions from the Index for Inclusion to critically assess and add depth to the criterion for each subcategory, utilising wider literature for support
5) The result of this triangulation is three categories, TASKS, LEARNING ENVIRONMENT, and CULTURE. The full SCIF including subcategories is in Appendix 8.4.2.

4.2.3.4 Interview Questions

Following up teacher observations with reflective interviews is a common practice in educational research (Mertons, 2005; Bogdan & Biklen, 1997). The purpose of such interviews is often to add context and to help interpret observation data. For the present study the pairing between an observation framework for inclusion, and teacher interviews was based upon Florian and Spratt (2013). Interpreting 'inclusive' practice in the classroom can require additional information about the context and intentions (such as planning) by teachers. Therefore the observation framework (SCIF) is not used in this study to provide a complete or objective perspective on practice, but rather to contribute to a combined perspective about both the inclusive practice of individual teachers, and inclusion at the school. Interviews could provide key pedagogical and policy insights.

Several studies explore teachers' understanding and attitudes of inclusion and how it applies to their practice (Avramidis, Bayliss & Burden, 2000; Wilkins & Nietfeld, 2004; Ross-Hill, 2009). Avramidis and Norwich (2002) note that Likert scale surveys are the most common format for measuring teacher attitudes towards inclusion. These include experience of inclusion, the particular disability being included, and the resources and training those teachers have available to them. Avramidis and Norwich (2002) note that surveys of this type, which explore teacher attitudes, are inadequate to examine teachers' approach to inclusion because

a) teachers may give more positive politically correct answers – particularly to general questions; exploration of context and application may overcome this
b) teachers interpretation of their practice as inclusive for different learning needs is open to multiple interpretations, and therefore descriptions of one's own practice need to substantiated by an outside perspective, such as an observation

Interview questions that elicit richer contextual information or that involve dialogue with the researcher may also yield responses based on a common understanding (Creswell, 2004).

Considering the whole methodology of the present study, there was an opportunity to explore multiple aspects of the data with teacher participants. Although the goal is not to seek congruence, inevitably teacher participants would acquiesce to some suggestions raised by an inclusive framework (Bickmore, Smagorinsky & O'Donnell-Allen, 2005). In order to integrate teacher narratives with looking at the SCIF, a series of questions that were designed to elicit short narratives was devised. As with Lawson, Parker and Sikes (2006) questions begin with a general opening question, and then go on to ask broad open questions to elicit short narratives, i.e.:

- Can you tell me about … ?
- What are the daily impacts of … ?
- What attitudes have you experienced …?

For the present study 8 questions were constructed considering this approach. Knoster (1991) identifies that vision, skills, incentives, resources and action planning are the core components of change in educational systems (Avramidis, Bayliss and Burden, 2002). Therefore the questions in the present study directly addressed these areas. Similar to the student participant interviews content explores both inclusion and wellbeing. These terms are used explicitly because they contribute to the professional discourse of teaching (DfES, 2003; Adi, et al., 2007). The list of questions can be seen in Appendix 8.4.3.

Following the questions the interviewer invited the participant to comment on selected dimensions from the SCIF. This was designed to elicit divergent attitudes against the model utilised in the study (Appendix 8.4.2). This also converged disparate data in the study, using a more recognised complete model of inclusion in schools (Booth & Ainscow, 2011). Participants

were asked whether the dimensions in the framework represented their practice and whether or not its suggestions were reasonable and set fair expectations on teachers. The teacher interviews concluded with participants invited to comment on anonymised quotes from the student interviews taken from their school. This was intended to highlight contrasting views between student and teacher participants, and to give teachers an opportunity to interpret these. This method was intended to explore whether there were notable divisions over particular issues, or where the study had identified particular levels of inclusion.

The procedure and use of measures is described in section 4.5.2 below.

Student Interview Questions

Student participants were asked questions from the following list as part of an interview process including additional activities described in section 4.5.1. Below the relationship between each interview question and secondary research questions is summarized. Number questions are interview questions; non-numbered italicised questions are secondary research questions and were not directly asked to the participants. Student participant interview questions are multi-layered, and structured in part by participants' individual photographs. For the full set of student interview questions including prompts, see Appendix 8.4.1.

General questions after pictures, if appropriate / not covered with pictures

1) How are your relationships with teachers?

How are students with SpLDs different?

Introduce exploring the student/teacher relationship. Introduce comparing qualities of relationships.

How does current teaching impacting students?

Introduce exploring outcomes of the student/teacher relationship.

2) Are there any aspects of school that you find difficult or distressing or stressful?

How does current teaching impacting students?

Introduce exploring negative experiences in the classroom.

What is the relationship between inclusion and wellbeing for students with SpLDs?

Introduce exploring feelings/moods when at school.

3) *How are you getting on in your ** classes?

How does current teaching impacting students?

Introduce exploring different teaching/learning methods. Introduce exploring achievement. Introduce exploring learning preferences.

How are students with SpLDs different?

Introduce exploring own specific skillsets. Introduce exploring accessible interventions for SpLDs.

* Denotes multiple questions of the same format, made different by inserting content **

** (English / Maths / Languages / Reading / Writing / Practical subjects / Sports / other specified by participant)

4) How happy are you with your social life in school?

How are students with SpLDs different?

Introduce SpLDs as a social difference / different identity. Introduce exploring bullying and marginalisation.

What is the relationship between inclusion and wellbeing for students with SpLDs?

Introduce exploring friendships and popularity. Introduce exploring social / break time

5) Tell me in your own words what it is like being [dyslexic/dyspraxic/etc.]

How are students with SpLDs different?

Introduce having an SpLD as a 'distinct' experience. Introduce using personal descriptors to define own experience.

<u>Secondary Level questions, to explore / develop picture and general questions</u>

1) Do you feel included in the classroom / as part of the school community?

How does current teaching impact students?

Explore if and how teachers engage students in class. Explore own contribution to a shared learning experience. Explore how teachers create an inclusive learning environment. Explore impact of and engagement with a variety of different types of learning/activities

What is the relationship between inclusion and wellbeing for students with SpLDs?

Explore how teaching has impacted aspects of identity, including considering future prospects.

2) How do you like to learn?

How does current teaching impact students?

Explore preferences and capabilities in different skillsets. Explore quality/frequency of opportunities offered to use different skillsets at school.

3) Do teachers teach you in a way that you understand?

How does current teaching impact students?

Explore difficulties experienced with teaching approaches. Explore imagined solutions to these difficulties. Explore experiences of good teaching, and how and why good teaching assists you. Explore if and how teaching helps you to motivate yourself.

4) What support do you get?

How are students with SpLDs different?

Explore experience of receiving special/different support than peers. Explore if and how participant has been impacted by exclusionary support.

How does current teaching impact students?

Explore pros and cons of different types of support that participant has experienced.

What is the relationship between inclusion and wellbeing for students with SpLDs?

Explore the extent to which special supports accommodates needs that the participant regards, or whether there is over/under lap. Explore the impact of experienced support interventions on wellbeing/mood/identity.

Tertiary prompts / expansion questions

These tertiary questions focus on exploring the secondary research question "*What is the relationship between inclusion and wellbeing for students with SpLDs?*". Questioning explores an array of *feelings* in response in to the scenarios and relationships discussed in the question areas outlined above.

Teacher Interview Questions

Teacher participants were asked the following questions as part of an interview process including additional activities described in section 4.5.2. Below the relationship between each interview question and secondary research questions is summarized. Number questions are interview questions; non-numbered italicised questions are secondary research questions and were not directly asked to the participants. For the full set of teacher interview questions including prompts, see appendix 8.4.3.

1) Can you tell me what inclusion means to you?

What is the relationship between inclusion and wellbeing for students with SpLDs?

Explore how participants conceptually fit inclusion with other concepts/priorities within their education practice. Explore the value the participant ascribes to inclusion.

How does current teaching impacting students?

Explore participant perception of the impact / outcome of their approach to inclusion on students. Explore participant attitudes towards inclusion.

2) How does inclusion impact your teaching practice?

How does current teaching impacting students?

Explore if and how the participant is guided by inclusive philosophy in daily practice. Explore if and how the participant relates inclusive philosophy to structural systems, responsibilities, or policies that they engage with.

3) How has inclusion impacted your professional development?

How does current teaching impacting students?

Explore if and how the participant perceives their training, skill development, and professional role has been impacted by inclusive philosophy. Interrogate participant's awareness and knowledge of significant aspects of inclusive theories and practices. Explore if and how the participant relates inclusion to the definition of their own professional role.

4) Do you see students with SpLD as more vulnerable than other students?

How are students with SpLDs different?

Explore whether the participant recognises psychosocial characteristics in relation to SpLDs.

What is the relationship between inclusion and wellbeing for students with SpLDs?

Explore if and how the participant understands how the nature of teaching may impact on psychosocial wellbeing and characteristics. Explore the nature of vulnerabilities, if any identified. Explore if and how the participant perceives any responsibility for this through their teaching practice.

5) What do you understand by the term wellbeing?

What is the relationship between inclusion and wellbeing for students with SpLDs?

Explore what the participant understands by the term wellbeing in general, and applied to students in the school environment. Explore if and how the participant perceives any responsibility for this through their teaching practice. Explore if and how the participant values the construction of wellbeing.

6) In what ways do you think teachers can contribute to positive student wellbeing?

How does current teaching impacting students?

Explore how participants aim to make a positive contribution to student wellbeing through their teaching practice. Explore with the participant how much time / attention / priority they assign to wellbeing in their teaching practice.

What is the relationship between inclusion and wellbeing for students with SpLDs?

Explore participant experience of identifying wellbeing issues among their students. Explore participant awareness of different approaches to support improved wellbeing among students in general, and students with SpLDs.

7) How do you feel SpLDs are perceived at the school?

How are students with SpLDs different?

Explore if and how the participant identifies issues with the perception / social construction of SpLDs at their school. Explore if and how the participant is aware of any consequences of the social representation of SpLDs at their school. Explore whether the participant understands / aims to improve, perceptions of SpLDs at their school.

8) What are your views on policies of inclusion?

What is the relationship between inclusion and wellbeing for students with SpLDs?

Explore how the participant understands the interactions between policies at different levels (classes, school, LEA, government). Explore if and how the participant understands the impact of policies at different levels on the wellbeing of students with SpLD. Explore if and how the participant understands the interaction between policies at different levels. Explore how the participant values different inclusion policies.

How are students with SpLDs different?

Explore if and how the participant explains the need / justification of different policies in relation to SpLDs.

4.2.3.5 Design Summary

This study employs a complex multi-faceted research methodology. This section provides a summary of two key areas:

a) how the aims of the study relate to different parts of the research methodology
b) how the research methods are suited to answering the research question

The research methodology is can be broken down into 4 approaches that were used in sampling the populations. These include:

1) Interviews
2) Photographic tasks
3) Classroom observations

4) Psychometric wellbeing measures

No single research method in the study is used in isolation to achieve an aim of the study. All measures have a degree of interdependence on others, in order for conclusions to be drawn. Section 4.3 discusses that for some aspects of this study, this was no always the intention.

Using measures interdependently in this manner has some downsides. Conclusions drawn are limited epistemologically to what can be justified between the overlapping epistemological positions of the validation of the measures (Hammersley, 2008; Creswell and Clark, 2004). This can limit the generalisability of some findings, however in this study, this has not been the case (which is further discussed in chapter 7). Other downsides include potential conflicts between data – which may question the validity of all data (Slonim-Nevo, 2009). Contrastingly, a major strength of this approach is that concordance between data types provides strong support for findings.

The study has several key aims, which are derived from the research question. Table 4.6 below outlines the derivative relationship between the research questions (primary and secondary) and the aims (numbered) of the study.

Research Question	Knowledge Aim
How can teaching methods improve the wellbeing of students with specific learning difficulties?	Discover differences in student wellbeing between different educational environments (1)
How are students with SpLDs different?	Discover how students with SpLDs experience their wellbeing (2)
How does current teaching impact students?	Discover how teaching in different learning environments impacts students with SpLDs (3)
What is the relationship between inclusion and wellbeing for students with SpLDs?	Discover relationships between particular teaching practices / aspects of learning environments and student wellbeing (4)

Table 4.6 Study Aims and Research Questions

There were two sets of interviews, which both served to address separate aims, and one general aim. Student interviews addressed Aim (2) by facilitating student voice. This is important to the study because it ensures that the findings reflect authentic views (Fernandes, Mendes & Teixeira, 2012; Simmons, Graham & Thomas, 2009; Punch, 2002b), and because the literature highlights the need for the emancipation of these perspectives for students with SpLDs (Norwich & Black, 2015). In order to assist in the facilitation of genuine student perspectives, and to help break down potential barriers between adults and students (such as language, familiarity with discussing certain topics, etc.) (Punch, 2002b; Fattore, Mason & Watson, 2009), the photographic task was used. The student interviews also addresses Aim (3) by promoting a student perspective of the experience of learning at school. Questions cover multiple aspects of school experience, guided by the students own priorities (derived from the photographic exercise). Aim (4) is addressed by the student interviews through the nature of extended inquiries into relevant questions. Appendix 8.4.1 outlines the student interview questions, which invite the student participants to draw inferences relating to Aim (4). The photographic task addresses the same aims as the student interviews.

The Teachers interviews address Aims (3) and (4) from the teacher perspective. Teachers design and structure classroom learning and some aspects of the learning environment, and therefore it is important to interpret the aims of the study from this perspective (Florian & Spratt, 2013; Avramidis & Norwich, 2002). Teacher interview questions (see Appendix 8.4.3) explore aspects of teaching practice, professional development, pedagogic philosophies, and wellbeing. Florian and Black-Hawkins (2010) highlight that it is essential to understand all these aspects when evaluating the impact of teaching on students. The technique of contextualisation is used reflexively between measures – i.e. measures can be both supporting/subordinate and primary/dominant approach towards achieving particular aims of the study. Teacher interviews are used to provide supporting information towards the interpretation of student interviews

because teacher interviews provided technical pedagogical information about teaching practices, resources, and policies at each school.

Teacher interviews themselves provided a basis for analysis, however classroom observations of the teacher participants' practice was used to provide additional (and different) contextualising information. Combining interviews and observations of teaching practice is common in the literature. This study emulated Florian and Spratt (2013) approach to integrating these data types. Florian and Spratt (2013) argue that in order to gauge inclusive practice, interviews are required to explain teacher intentions and designs for the classroom activities because observing inclusive practice may not provide enough information about the strategic approach to supporting specific students. Classroom observations also provided additional contextualising information for student interviews. Classroom observations address Aim (3), and provide supplementary information to other aspects of the study.

Psychometric wellbeing measures address Aim (1). Although psychometric measures are not the only basis of analytic comparison between schools (see chapter 7), they provide a validated positivist indicator of difference (Mucherah & Finch, 2010; ValÅs, 1999). The SDQ-II measure explores self-concept for children across several domains of experience. This is the primary psychometric wellbeing measure for the present study and is concordant with the working definition of wellbeing for students with SpLDs in this study (see section 3.4). Based on Huebner, Gilman and Laughlin (1999), the BMSLSS is used as a confirmatory indicator of general wellbeing. The BMSLSS measures satisfaction with life for students, and therefore is appropriate for the present study.

Answering the primary research question requires the in depth exploration of two nebulous terms – wellbeing and inclusion. The research design has employed contextualisation in order to

reinforce the value of findings taken from a small representation of a large population (De Lisle, 2011; Houghton, et al., 2013). Contextualising different research methods also grounds findings which draw inferences from correlations between findings, and extends the generalisability for case analysis (Firestone, 1993; Polit & Beck, 2010). In this study, the broad contextual information gathered from multiple sources allows the researchers to present each school as a case study of a learning environment.

A mix of qualitative and quantitative measures was chosen to broaden the appeal of the findings beyond pedagogical epistemologies (Fischer, 2009). Educators may benefit from different epistemological perspectives informing their practice, and this study aims to provide a possible approach for that. Wellbeing remains an ill-defined term, and several studies have highlighted the potential draw-backs of trying to enact policy which is not grounded in practical or definable language (Hanley, Winter & Burrell, 2017; Spratt, 2016). Wellbeing is also not being addressed in a public sense. Wellbeing appears to be on the decline, at a time when there is more attention on it than ever before (Forgeard, et al., 2011). Psychometric wellbeing measures allow for an interpretation which can be easily simplified for the non-expert to digest (White, 2010).

Several studies have attempted to create a framework for inclusive teaching practice (Florian & Spratt, 2013; Booth & Ainscow, 2011). This study highlights some of the reasons why that is difficult, and proposes a pragmatic approach to observation, with the aim of 'moving things along'. This is based upon Florian and Spratt (2013), who recognise that using interview data to contextualise observations allows observations of inclusive practice to be conducted on classroom activities.

4.3 'Troubled' Analysis

Troubled or 'troubling' methodology in academic literature has long provided insights for researchers and expanded debate into epistemology beyond purely theoretical critique. In recent years several articles have embraced and explored the difficulties that emerge from methodology, encountering unanticipated issues, and seeking solutions. 'Good' research might be defined as that which has explored potential issues to a point that it becomes problematized (Chamberlain, 2011), a scrutiny not always preferred. This process can provide mandates for proposed higher levels of quality and scrutiny in research, which arguably should be adhered to.

In the present research discerning inclusion and inclusive practices is a problem of both defined practices, given the distinct variation of terminology and approaches (Lindsay, 2007), and developing and implementing approaches that can capture these phenomena. For the present study 'Good' research leading to 'troubling' practice has its origins in analysis. A primary integration of the mixed methods multi source data was undertaken using a combination of Miles-Huberman meta-matrix (Miles & Huberman, 1994) techniques and a two phase explanatory triangulation technique, described by Creswell and Clark (2004). The meta-matrix was a suitable approach because it is the product of a philosophy of transcendental realism – that is to say that the approach recognises that social concepts and social phenomena exist from multiple perspectives, and that a complete perspective involves linking data from multiple sources (Miles & Huberman, 1994).

A Miles-Huberman style meta-matrix has the capacity for an exhaustive triangulatory analysis utilising multiple data types (Miles & Huberman, 1994). All data in the matrix is evenly weighted, and therefore this can reduce bias on any particular source of data. Furthermore data that is not corroborated or supported by other integrations can be discarded. This level of rigour to determine quality findings is desirable. Critical realism in education research offers a coherent

meta-theoretical principle of 'internal critique' – that is to say that epistemologies are not treated as sacred under a given philosophy, and that critique of subjective ideals must then be justified (Cruickshank, 2002). Criticality in these terms of plurality involves discarding data findings, rather than including incongruous information into knowledge. This rigour is important because it appeases both scientific and post-scientific positions (Scheurich, 1997).

At this point the researcher's intention was strongly focussed on ensuring equity/parity between qualitative and quantitative data because it was recognised that because of highly disputed definitions of both wellbeing and inclusion, measures of specific models could limit the research to describing these aspects in this dimension. Additionally nesting one epistemology inside the framework of another (i.e. qualitative in quantitative or vice versa) is incompatible with the aim to present exploratory grounded findings (as a priori knowledge). Therefore parity was favoured over an 'embedded' or 'follow a thread' design to avoid potential bias. This decision was made partly because the researcher alone was responsible for gathering and analysing data (Miles & Huberman, 1994). The meta matrix process was initially undertaken, according to the guidelines set out by Miles and Huberman (1994). Matrices included qualitative and quantitative elements in each case. These were then reviewed and critiqued, before being condensed (Miles & Huberman, 1994; Wendler, 2001).

Both aspects of the core relationship of the study - teaching methods and wellbeing, are open to various epistemologies, including positivist paradigms. A mixed methods design poses complications, however, due to the incompatibility of data triangulation with a postmodern analysis (López, & Potter, 2005). A postmodern interpretation is incompatible with a realist analysis – that is to say that purely data driven analysis is perceived as naïve (Alvesson & Sköldberg, 2017). Triangulation is inherently based in realism – a perspective considered naïve in postmodernism because of the focus on data. Scheurich (1997) identifies that reason in research

is spoken by the subject (not the participant) and that conclusions suffer from a crisis of identity. Where data are not facts, but rather descriptive representations, realism's pragmatic conclusions are empty shells that lack the essence of the historical and cultural setting.

Miller, et al. (2008) recommend that interdisciplinary researchers accept epistemological pluralism to better understand complex systems. Similarly Thomas (2009a) proposed that an epistemology for inclusion essentially needs to integrate 'common epistemology' – in essence that practice based discourses from teachers and educational psychologists must be taken as seriously as psychological scientific knowledge. Thomas argues that science has to respond to values such as social justice, in order to act humanely, and not ignore the richness of our most natural type of knowledge. By virtue of this point Thomas also acknowledges that we all 'know' differently, and therefore the preferred outcome would be epistemological pluralism, much as with the MBE approach (Fischer & Lang, 1999). MBE identifies the practical advantages of this when research is utilised by different types of practitioner.

Considering these approaches for the present study, a resolution between postmodern inquiry and data triangulation was required, despite the clear relevance to the subject and structure of the relationship. Critical realism offers the coherent meta-theoretical principle of 'internal critique' (Cruickshank, 2002; Cruickshank, 2004). To complement the data triangulation undertaken, an approach was devised to bring the epistemological conflict into actuality. This was inspired by the work of Fischer and others (Fischer & Lang, 1999; Fischer, 2008; Fischer, Goswami & Geake, 2010), where the intention was to explore multiple perspectives of the same data, and to discover how these might unfold in the real world – with a focus on determining points of consensus and of division.

The researcher undertook a type of communal analysis, drawing on 'expert'[5] perspectives. Olsen (2004) used a team of diverse 'expert' researchers in their analysis. This process utilised fundamental elements of Miles and Huberman's (1994) metamatrix, while also incorporating a variety of other tools to support interactive discussion and cooperation towards achieving a form of consensus. The purpose of the multiple expert analysis in the present study was not to achieve an objective triangulation, but rather to highlight and celebrate the contrasting perspectives that the researcher has encountered on their academic journey to their current ontology. This acknowledgement of distinct sets of skills involved in the research design avoids the reliance on the naivety of empiricism (Olsen, 2004). Each 'expert' participating in the analysis would have a unique perspective to bring to the activity, and these be brought to bear in the theoretical critique of themes and the data. Outcomes were stated based upon a culmination of consensus views (Miles & Huberman, 1994).

A group activity took place that was facilitated by the researcher, based on the proposed structure discussed. 'Experts' included clinical psychologists, teachers, education inclusion researchers, and experts in mixed methods data analysis. The first realisation was that the intention to facilitate a discussion to seek consensus was perhaps too broad a remit to task a disparate group of academics with. To genuinely redistribute power it became necessary to let the 'experts' reframe the modes of analysis. In this sense the 'troubling' took on features discussed by Gibson, et al. (2015) as 'interruptions' as methodological tools. The process of 'interruptions' can be understood as methodological tools because they served in configuring the data analysis and interpreting the data; albeit in ways not entirely intended. A co-constructive process in organic stages delivered an entangled piece of work with numerous aspects to it.

[5] The term 'expert' can be a contentious one in qualitative research (Lawson, et al., 2015; Anderson & Gristy, 2013). The term 'expert' can become problematized because in such an interpretation the participant is the only real expert. What resulted was that some 'expert' participants worked from a perspective that was compatible with the activity, while others did not.

Much like Mamas (2009) the adaptation at this stage provided interesting and opportune directions for the research, but was none the less imperfect.

The 'expert' participants found initial consensus in disputing the choice to apply parity to data types. The team felt that quantitative data gathered alone could not substantiate the positivist research claims of the study, due to the relatively small sample size. The sample had multiple dimensions to it, however the team felt that one categorisation – the number of different schools, could not be deemed representative of the implied differences, on quantitative data alone. Triangulation with parity requires each data type to be able to stand legitimately independently, and therefore another approach to integrating data types would be preferred.

The team of 'experts' also explored numerous 'troubling' tendencies that did not need to become 'interruptions', as these has been adequately considered in the research design. Presenting these to the team was a revealing process that identified the different standards that researchers from different disciplines hold. For certain 'expert' positions, data integrity, despite reasonable controls, was a concern, because it was argued that there were too many confounding variables to make a test of difference. Suggested measures included a reversal action research design, and comparative designs, however these were deemed unethical due to the nature of the research. Secondly some 'expert' positions were troubled by the choice to identify or define wellbeing. Both are satisfied because the researcher's intention has always been to *compliment* data types, rather than have them serve independently. Contrarily other 'expert' participants pursued solutions based on the fluidity of data interpretation.

The 'expert' researchers collectively recommended using interpretative phenomenological analysis (IPA). Although IPA collectively has principle qualities (which are discussed below), there exist a variety of techniques or approaches to engage with broader epistemologies (Biggerstaff & Thompson, 2008; Shinebourne, 2011). Smith (2004a) notes that IPA is compatible with cognitive

and social psychology because of the emphasis on examining mental processes, and applying an interpretative framework. IPA however also offers much more for qualitative researchers across disciplines due to its cornerstones, being both inductive and idiographic in nature (Smith, 2004a). For many researchers IPA can provide a basis for grounded and expansive research designs with the flexibility to respond to findings with further stages of exploration. IPA is however rigorous and analysis is based on cases or individual data points, rather than in the proof of predetermined hypotheses. As a result the analysis can appease realist, constructivist, ethnographic, postmodernist, and other epistemological positions, which is essential for the present study. In the present study IPA is particularly useful because of the process of 'troubling'.

Smith (2004a) describes IPA as

> *"… a double hermeneutic. The participant is trying to make sense of their personal and social world; the researcher is trying to make sense of the participant trying to make sense of their personal and social world."*

From this for the present study two things can be understood. Firstly IPA offers a suitable model to explicate participant experiences; Secondly that the inclusion of the researcher's perspective is essential to do this. This is because the researcher is part of the social framework. The researcher mentions the second because 'troubling' is exactly that. Interpretation is not a single action, but rather a developing process.

IPA is relatively new method analysis devised by Smith (1996). Smith argues that it serves to mediate between discourse analysis and social cognition. As social cognition is historically based in positivist rigours, IPA essentially crossed significant epistemological boundaries. Naturally therefore it has critics on either side. Language itself is learned, and is something everyone varies in their ability with, which of course is relevant to the present study as it samples participants with specific learning difficulties. Language is a significant part *of* their experience (Sparks & Ganschow, 1991; Ziegler & Goswami, 2005). Willig (2009) argues that there is an epistemological

conflict within IPA. Willig suggests that social cognition relies on Cartesian dualism, which undermines the notion of certain physical phenomena. Resolving conflicts of epistemology enable a multidisciplinary study to sustain the relationships between phenomena from different academic and practice perspectives (Fischer, 2009).

In the tradition of Heidegger, understanding belongs to a being who 'understands' (Richardson, 2013). Heidegger's phenomenology and existential arguments challenge the traditions of hermeneutics, but also provide the most important notion of self-advocated research, and the benefits of participant research. Interpreting Heidegger, the 'double hermeneutic' in IPA is part of a cycle of reference to ontology and definition (Smith, 2004a). This further instructs researchers to be meticulous in accounting for their role as the interpreter. Placing consciousness into interpretation is to acknowledge inter-subjectivity, a term coined by Husserl (Husserl & Kern, 1973). Husserl argued that inter-subjectivity can be transcendental of one or more person's experience. This is because it can require more than one's mental state to be present (Husserl, 1970). Schutz (1962) further develops this notion and highlights how empathy or '*Platzwechsel'* (trading places) provides an aim for researchers upon subjects. What is worth noting is that regardless of 'objectivity', the notion of a common construction seems evidently supported (Adluri, 2013). Cyclically, therefore, we find that, according to Schutz (1967) the interaction 'we' researchers seek requires inter-subjectivity in order to be authentic.

The ramifications for the present study were explored, and the researcher chose to proceed with an IPA analysis because

a) the preliminary thematic analysis revealed findings that were based in the social, organisational, and symbolic

b) where the physical environment was a core part of a theme, hermeneutics did not rely on a thesis of psycho-physical parallelism, nor did discourse explore interactionism (Ihde & Zaner, 2013).

The 'expert' team also found consensus in stating that direct causal inference was not compatible with the sort of complimentary analysis they proposed, but this did not necessarily limit generalisability or relevance of the data. Mamas (2009) explores the issue of generalisability. The present study originally had the aspiration to be able to be generalised from. Similarly Mamas, discusses the 'troubling' within his work surrounding action research methodology. Like Mamas, although the present study utilises quantitative data, this is not being used for the purpose of generalisation. Bruner (1996) extensively explores the properties of narratives in qualitative research, and presents a now established argument for being able to generalise from qualitative research. Bruner does not claim that empirical or positivist claims can be made, but however highlights how analyses that explore representative cases and explicate supportable connections can provide themes and principles which we are able to apply to the wider population. Stake (1980) proposes that 'naturalistic generalisations' are natural intuitive part of the interpretation of context, and therefore qualitative research does represent generalisability.

Polit and Beck (2010) extend these ideas based on the work of Firestone (1993), categorising three approaches to qualitative generalisation – statistical, analytic, and case-by-case. Integrating different methods, different sources of data, and different interpretative paradigms is welcomed by Polit and Beck (2010). They note that

> *"Well-grounded meta-inferences (Tashakkori and Teddlie, 2009) based on rich, complementary data sources can enhance analytic generalization. And rich and diverse descriptive information from two types of data source can promote an understanding of proximal similarities and hence transferability."*

Mohr (1997) gives a good account of Denzin's (1983) work on Interpretative Interactionism, a key aspect of which is multi-perspectivism. Multi-perspectivism promotes the benefits of interpretative and phenomenological approaches in creating 'evaluative' methods – or in other words generalizable qualitative findings. Representation is within the power of the researcher (providing they genuinely speak for the participants), and therefore can

> *"… be employed to evaluate the effects of interventions that may have been expert derived rather than developed with the unique constellation of needs, qualities, and reaction of the intervention recipients in mind."* (Mohr, 1997)

This conception is clearly pertinent to the present study and the wider study of educational inclusion.

Polit and Beck (2010) share common notions with Denzin (1983), in describing "thinking conceptually and reflexively" as a way to increase qualitative generalisability. They note that

> *"To do high-quality work, qualitative researchers must be reflexive and conceptual throughout their project. Their emergent efforts to ask good questions of the right people (or to observe the right behaviours or events) force ongoing decisions that are, in theory at least, driven by the conceptual demands of the study, and it is these efforts that contribute to analytic generalization."*

This directly relates to the decision to use IPA in the present study because it can support the required framework for descriptive information and contain features that can be transferable across studies. Polit and Beck (2010) also refer to classic tenets of qualitative analysis, but suggest improvements can always be made. Immersion in one's data is always a positive to strive for when exploring data for themes, and underpins all other approaches to strengthen the case for generalisation. Creswell (2004) also notes that knowledge of individual cases, (schools/classrooms/pupils/teachers) constitutes a necessity for policy making.

4.4 Ethical Considerations

Ethically appropriate research in the field of education is essential. The British Educational Research Association (BERA, 2004) guidelines offer an established set of principles and practices to facilitate ethical research enquiry. With educational research there is potentially the ethical consideration of the impact of the research study on the sample and the school environment (BERA, 2004). From the primary premise of the study there is the reasonable expectation that some of the participants will be experiencing negative wellbeing in the school environment in which the research is conducted and related to the topics explored. It is the responsibility of researchers to seek methods that minimise any potential negative impact of research on the participants by selecting appropriate research methods, and conducting the research in a sensitive and respectful manner.

Research can be enabling, and can enliven and inspire positivity within a sample, and encourage beneficial outcomes from the participants and those in the surrounding environment / context (Snyder & Lopez, 2009; Punch, 2002a). It also has to be considered however that every child may react differently, and that experiences can be experienced in relation to the school context, or other personal contexts, including the family, or specific social groups / identities. The wealth of the literature however argues that wellbeing research is beneficial for its participants, and that harm is minimised using efforts to normalise the research process, and to provide suitable debriefing and support (Birbeck & Drummond, 2007). There are several key issues about facilitating the appropriate research dynamic, particularly the lack of power or agency that the child has in participating in research (Morrow & Richards, 1996). The nature or content of research questions or topics presents rather obvious ethical dilemmas when talking about emotionally sensitive topics.

The nature of certain questions (particularly those that may be inherently negative) may have rather obvious connotations of quite undesirable qualities, including labels that are social stigmatised (Save the Children, 2000). Children may be aware that their responses identify them as 'unpopular', 'depressed', or some similar term, and this may be something that they take with them beyond the scope of the research. Therefore in choosing psychometric scales it was important to consider the wording of questions, but also the aspects of wellbeing that are being tested to see if they are really necessary.

The teachers interviewed had been observed as part of the study, and therefore it was important for teachers to be able to give explanation or put context to this. Some participant teachers discussed issues relating to the challenges they faced in their jobs trying to deliver inclusion, and often these issues became personalised, and voiced as criticisms of policy or senior individuals. At no point during any interview did any teacher participants name any individual. The researcher, having become familiar with the school environment, the 'key players', and in some cases discussed their policies in debriefing sessions, was however aware of the target of some inferences. In order to retain complete anonymity, some information could not be including or had to be anonymised.

Understanding accessibility considerations for people with SpLDs is significant for both their understanding and their wellbeing. 'Dyslexia Friendly' accessibility guides promoted by associated charitable organisations, offer a suitable first step for anybody looking to cater their material for participants with dyslexia. The British Dyslexia Association publishes such guidance on their website that recommends serif-free fonts, large font sizes, reduced background glare (from white with black text), no underlines on web links, plain backgrounds, symbols and flowcharts to denote relationships, and media formats such as using ICT (British Dyslexia Association, 2012).

The initial research task involved the participants exploring the school, taking photographs, which is discussed in greater detail below. All participants were informed not to worry about taking clear or well composed pictures, but rather to focus just on content, in order to accommodate potential stress caused by concern of physical coordination common with dyspraxia. Photography was used as a medium to capture information because it avoided the need for participants to write anything, and was not reliant on participants having to memorise anything. Paper and pens were not present when the participants were being interviewed, and instead all information was recorded with a Dictaphone or a computer interface. During on screen multiple choice psychometric measures the researcher read out all the questions and answers to avoid participants having to rely on their own reading ability. The on screen interface featured coloured backgrounds and softer text colouring, and the hues could be adjusted across the visual light spectrum in order to suit a range of preferences, to accommodate visual stress (Singleton, 2009). The Tahoma font was used, as recommended by the British Dyslexia Association (2012). The full psychometric questionnaire questions are available in Appendix 8.4.4 Screenshots of the interface are in Appendix 8.4.5.

Some of the teacher participants in the sample also had dyslexia. For teacher participant's, part of the study involved reading through quotes from the student sample. It was decided that it was more ethically appropriate for these participants to be given plenty of time to read these on their own, rather than the researcher reading these for them.

Overall ethical considerations for the present study did not pose an issue. It was possible to follow guidance and to comply with regulation. The primary ethical consideration of the study was two sides of the same coin: Engaging student participants in discussing wellbeing has positive effects, vs discussing sensitive topics can have a negative impact on wellbeing. A careful selection of research tools and clear debriefing helped to meet this required balance.

- The complete student participant ethics protocol is in Appendix 8.4.6
- The complete teacher participant ethics protocol is in Appendix 8.4.7
- Further details of the ethics process for the expert analysis team are in Appendix 8.4.8
- Consent forms and information packs can be seen in appendices 8.4.9, 8.4.10, 8.4.11, 8.4.12, 8.4.13, 8.4.15 and 8.4.16

4.5 Procedure

4.5.1 Student Participants

Initially student participants were organised into small groups of between 4 and 8 (depending on availability around class schedule) by gatekeepers (SEN department staff). In these small groups participants were introduced to study and informed of their rights as granted by the ethics agreement as discussed below. The researcher read from a script to give participants details of the procedure for the study (as listed here), and to introduce the first task – the photographic gateway exercise. For the script see Appendix 8.4.14.

Participants were given digital cameras, and in a group the researcher gave a basic tutorial on how to use the cameras, including power button, shutter control, flash, and shutter button. Participants were instructed not to delete pictures as there would be opportunity to select which images were discussed in the interview. Participants were instructed to take 6 pictures – 3 of things that had positive associations, and three that had negative associations. Participants were given the run of the school to do this, however they were advised not to interrupt classes, and not to take pictures of people as these could not be admitted to the study as they would breach confidentiality. After 15-20 minutes participants returned the cameras to the researcher and participants returned to their lessons.

The researcher and the gatekeepers organised schedules of when participants were to come out of lessons to take part in their interview in a private room. At the start of each interview the researcher briefed the participant on the tasks ahead, and reminded them of their right to withdraw. Each entire interview was recorded using a digital dictaphone in order to allow the researcher to identify non-verbal/sub-vocal cues during analysis.

All interviews began by looking through the photographs the participant had taken on a laptop. Therefore going through the photos one by one the first question was:

Why did you take this photo? What does that mean to you? Why?

The meaning of photographs was explored through the interview questions (secondary level questions and tertiary prompts – see appendix 8.4.1). The researcher had organised each participant's photographs on the laptop, so that each participant could see them enlarged on the laptop screen one by one. Each participant had been instructed to take three photos of things/places that had positive/happy associations, and three with negative/sad associations. For each image the researcher asked the reason for taking the picture, prompted the participant to identify different aspects of the picture, and to think about their how or why whatever was depicted affects their mood. Participants were free to discuss the meaning of each photo, and to talk about any experiences that related to it. This ensured that the interview topics were guided by the participants, and reflected aspects of school important to them.

Secondary level questions and tertiary prompts (see appendix 8.4.1) were used to extract further information from the photographs about feelings, motivations, and responses. They were also used to enquire about related or comparable experiences to those depicted in the photograph. This included divergence into discussing related styles of learning, or similar experiences in other classes.

Once the meaning of the photographs had been discussed, the interviewer asked the general questions (also extended by secondary level questions and tertiary prompts). These questions were tailored in response to areas that had already been covered while exploring the photographs, so if a subject had been covered, it was not revisited.

Meaningful responses were followed up by appropriate questions exploring feelings. All aspects of the interview were audio recorded. Appendix 8.4.1 contains the student interview schedule / question guide. This provided a structure for the remainder of each interview that ensured they remained student led in their content, whilst covering many key aspects of educational experience that were an important part of the research aims.

Next the participant answered psychometric questions using a computer interface. The questions were from the SDQ-II (short version) [51 questions] and the BMSLSS [6 questions]. The participant could see the screen and read the question/options, but the researcher also read these to the participant. Screenshots of the interface and the list of questions are available in Appendix 8.4.4.

Following the interviews several (but not all) participants were observed in 1 or more classes. Classes were selected based on the availability of clusters of participants being present. During classroom observations the researcher did not have direct contact or interaction with participants. Details of the observation procedures are described in section 4.5.2.

4.5.2 Teacher Participants

Classes were selected based on the availability of clusters of student participants in classroom based lessons. Consent was sought from teachers, and then if given consent the researcher attended class. Other than giving a brief introduction to the research, the researcher had no additional prior contact or interaction with teachers. The researcher conducted a passive observation of the classroom using the SCIF tool on a laptop (see Appendix 8.4.2). The researcher sat near to the back of each classroom, or to one side, where they would pose as minimal distraction to students as possible. The researcher arrived at observation classes shortly before

the lesson started, so that they could set up, and begin observation immediately. The teacher instructed the students not to interact with the researcher during the class.

The computer interface to record the SCIF measures contained text input areas and numerical scales (1-3), for all of the 22 categories. The researcher observed changes in the assigned student activates and/or other significant classroom events (such as change in teacher task, disruptive behaviour, change of focus between class/small group/individual, assistance from other staff, change in means of information presentation). Every time one of these events occurred, the researcher defined a 'new phase'. The researcher click "next phase" in the software, and it stored the written and numerical observations from the current phase, and presented the researcher with a new blank SCIF table to input textual information and numerical information into.

The layout of each SCIF table closely resembled the SCIF tool in appendix 8.4.2, but with expandable text areas below. The researcher used these text areas to describe the nature of activities of both teachers and students (sometimes supported by actual worksheets), including verbal prompts and support. The SCIF tool provided prompts for the researcher for the type of information to be recorded. All attempts to note or capture examples were taken. Not each SCIF category was relevant within each phase, and therefore within each phase, there were resultantly some descriptions that were very rich and details, others with minor detail, and some with no detail. The 1-3 scale for each category of the SCIF was manifested as a radio buttons on the form. Following each full classroom observation the researcher consolidated notes and combined them with artefacts from the classroom such as worksheets.

Following classroom observations a second phase of recruitment for teachers who would be interviewed was initiated. The portion of the sample that consented to be involved in the second stage were given a written description of the process of the interview (as listed here) by email in

which they were encouraged to prepare for the interview by considering, and if preferred making notes on (from the participant's perspective):

- Your teaching practice
- Specific examples you would like to share
- your professional development
- Difficulties you perceive

In relation to:

- Student wellbeing
- Inclusive teaching practice and inclusive values
- Terms like dyslexia
- Students with specific learning difficulties

During the interview in order to keep the interview process open and discursive prompts were also available for the interviewer if the participant initially chose not to expand on the open question. This was used at the discretion of the researcher. Similar to the student participant interviews content explored both inclusion and wellbeing. The list of questions can be seen in Appendix 8.4.3.

Following the questions the interviewer invited to participants to comment on selected dimensions from the SCIF. This was designed to elicit divergent attitudes against the model utilised in the study (Appendix 8.4.2). Participants were asked whether the dimensions in the framework represented their practice and whether or not its suggestions were reasonable and set fair expectations on teachers. Participants were also free to make any further comments based on the dimensions as it related to their practice or inclusion as a wider topic.

The teacher interviews concluded with participants invited to comment on anonymised quotes from the student interviews taken from their school.

4.5.3 Expert Researcher Participants

The multiple expert analysis began with an identification by the participant of their subject position and field of knowledge / expertise. Participants prepared a statement to read that briefly introduced their background, education, and subject relevance to the current study.

The steps of the multiple expert analysis replicated a meta-matrix, including the creation of a framework that consists of: data, coded data (including reference to theory), and clustered themes and patterns. Themes were critiqued using theory, and outcomes were stated based upon culmination of consensus views.

The proceedings of the multiple expert analysis were recorded using a dictaphone, and photographs of the board were taken at various stages to demonstrate the various evolutions of the iterative analysis procedure.

4.6 Overview

This chapter has explored the trials of tribulations of the researcher, in designing appropriate methods for data capture and analysis. The researcher took an unexpectedly complicated route in this, and for this, he apologises to the reader – who has displayed some fortitude in sticking with it! This chapter has explained the choice of measures and tools for the current study, and how this are appropriate to the research question. This takes into account the ethics of working with children and vulnerable individuals, as well the various theoretical hurdles to conceiving a design which appropriately incorporates multiple perspectives in the education environment.

In the next chapter, the process of data analysis is critically examined, providing a description of the various processes towards the creation of an integrated set of results. The chapter explores the IPA method in depth, as well as various stages of qualitative and quantitative analyses.

5 . Analysis

This chapter walks the reader through the various stages of analysis, including numerical and categorical details of the sample, the processing of numerical data, and the numerous stages of the IPA analysis

The education environment is created between the teacher and the student, but often teaching staff, administrators, governors and local education authorities influence or control key boundaries. The discursive construct of the environment and processes of professional practice essentially reflect adult perspectives. The reported analysis was specifically designed to draw a clear focus on the child's perspective, with all structure and categorization taken from their terminology. Photography allowed the participants to wander their environment and hone their associations – providing a basis for interviews, while psychometrics that explore self-perception in context, allowed participants to consider their emotional reaction to school in a holistic manner.

As discussed in the previous chapter the analysis process was arrived at gradually. Consequently the analysis is multifaceted and involved a level of statistical analysis not always common within Interpretative Phenomenological Analysis (IPA). These are, none the less, detailed in this chapter because they both tell the story of the analysis process, and evidence the rigour the researcher went to ensure quality findings.

5.1 Preliminary Analyses

This section reports the numerous preliminary statistical analyses utilised in order to derive groupings discussed later on. In reporting this it is also identified the strengths and weaknesses of the statistical data, which contributed to decisions in the evolving analysis, which was also discussed in more detail in the previous chapter.

Means and standard deviations for the SDQ-II total score, and its 11 principle scores are summarized in Appendix 8.5.6. The 11 SDQ-II scores are derived from 51 questions rated using Likert scales from 1- 6 (False, Mostly false, More false than true, More true than false, Most true, True), where ~50% of items are inversely coded to take account of negating statements. The average range of principle scores was 19 (68% of the possible), while the score range of the SDQ-II total score was 131 (51% of the possible). This indicates participants are highly differentiated where participants are scoring from the lowest possible to the highest possible in some cases. The greatest range is for the emotional stability score. Variation in SDQ-II scores would be expected with any sample, however it is notable that the sample in the present study has been identified as having specific learning difficulties – which is reflected in the lowest means scores for mathematic ability and verbal ability. It is necessary to weight the mean scores because the SDQ-II scores are not each derived from an equal number of questions. Parental relations has the lowest range and the highest mean, which benefits the study because it indicates that the potentially extraneous variable of “home life” is relatively stable in the sample, and not a relatively significant negative impact on wellbeing (as measured in part by the SDQ-II).

In order to utilise the SDQ-II scores in further analysis, they were transformed into percentiles, and then a T-test was used to derive T-scores, as summarized in Appendix 8.5.6. The T-Test applied to dataset negates the previous need to weight means for analysis. The T-scored means

are all within 1 percentile of the 50%, and the total mean is 50%. However despite this the skewness and kurtosis statistics reveal a lack of normal distribution.

The BMSLSS score is a single statistical variable reached by totalling the results from 6 questions, each dealing with a different domain of life satisfaction, and a global domain. There is a possible score range of 7 – 42, with 42 indicating the highest levels of life satisfaction. In this study BMSLSS scores have a range of 29 points (80% of the possible). This range is typical for the measure with a general population of students of the age used in the study. The mean score for the BMSLSS is 30.70, with a standard deviation of 7.660. This mean is average for the measure, however the low kurtosis statistic (0.31, skewness = -.795) reveals that for all percentiles ranks of the score, frequencies were similar, and not normally distributed, which indicates that participants in this study answered with more extreme responses than is typical for this measure. This also suggests consistency in scores from participants – answering negatively for all, or positively for all which could be the result of a specific influence.

5.2.1 Data Assumptions

Parametric test conditions were not satisfied for the BMSLSS or SDQ-II score because they did not show normal distributions. Appendix 8.5.1 contains test of normality. The Shapiro-Wilk test was used because the sample was relatively small (N=74) based on published guidance by SPSS (1999). Of the 13 test score items 4 were not normally distributed, including the BMSLSS. Because the BMSLSS score is required for all hypothesis testing, all test procedures need to be transformed or resampled to run tests of difference. Appendix 8.5.2 shows the distributions for the SDQ-II scores and the BMSLSS. The wide range of skewnesses demonstrated in Appendix 8.5.2 indicates that the sample in this study does not present typical scores for these measures. This was predicted because the population does not comprise typical students for the age range.

5.2.2 Factor Analysis

Descriptive statistics and theoretical models of this study support the notion that the sample is not typical for the age range of the participants (Marsh, 1992). The statistical differences were theorised to be due to the sample having specific learning difficulties and/or receiving differentiated support in school for this.

A factor analysis of the 11 SDQ-II scores for the original sample (N = 74) using an orthogonal varimax rotation was performed to explore the relationship between the SDQ-II scores and the overall statistical variables for wellbeing (including the SDQ-II Self Concept Total). An analysis of the eigenvalues revealed three factors with eigenvalues greater than 1 (See Appendix 8.5.3). The first factor accounted for 30.98%, the significance of which of which is highlighted in the scree plot (see Appendix 8.5.4).

Factor 1 consists of Verbal Ability, General Self and General School SDQ-II score variables. Verbal ability is the highest ranked score in the factor matrix. This is significant firstly because the theoretical models that this study is based upon predict this outcome (Norwich & Kelly, 2010; Sideridis, 2007; Craven & Marsh, 2008; Gans, Kenny & Ghany, 2003; Polychroni, Koukoura & Anagnostou, 2006). The SDQ-II measure does not measure the ability or real level of a participant in any dimension, but rather it measures participant's self-perception. Students with specific learning difficulties (of which the most commonly identified is dyslexia) believe that they are less able in reading and written work than typical peers. Furthermore this result is the most significant factor in the overall SDQ-II self-concept score.

Factor 2 consists of Same Sex Relations and Mathematic Ability. Factors 2 and 3 do not display the same loading as Factor 1 but eigenvalues still confirm their independence.

Same Sex Relations is analogous to social satisfaction or perception of social standing. A predicting factor of wellbeing this is a typical result for teenagers, who are highly invested in

their social lives. There is no obvious explanation why Mathematic ability should be inversely correlated in a factor with Same Sex Relations. Mathematics may carry social stigma for some students, but there is not enough data to draw such a link here (Gasbarra & Johnson, 2008; Riley, 2012).

Factor 3 consists of Opposite Sex Relations and Emotional Stability. Opposite sex relationships in teenagers are an indicator of social identity and confidence (Lempers & Clark-Lempers, 1993). According to a goal avoidance model general low confidence may result from avoiding engagement in tasks that present a challenge, which may in turn lead to poor mental health and emotional instability (Sideridis, 2007).

The factor analysis results provide additional descriptions of the data that support the robustness of the data and describe predicted trends.

The 11 SDQ-II component variables and the BMSLSS scores were individually categorised into 10-percentile ranks, against which eigenvalue variables were rounded to. Using these initial weightings, low, medium, and high ranges for the factor clusters with variability calculated by the number of factors in the cluster. Thus this produced a Low, Medium, and High weighted cluster variable to categorise qualitative data corresponding to each participant. The factor weighting transformations are explained in Appendix 8.5.5. This process does not claim to explore statistical significance, but rather to incorporate a good approximation of the pattern of the data to further compliment the qualitative analysis.

5.2.3 Bootstrapping Procedure

Bootstrapping in SPSS was utilised for the SDQ-II and the BMSLSS score variables (with n = 1000 bootstrap resamples). This approach was chosen to allow parametric significance tests to be

used with the dataset. Bootstrapping was the most appropriate choice because with the small sample size there was limited power (Adèr, Mellenbergh & Hand, 2008). The data shows heteroscedasticity, so bootstrapping applied residual resampling of the variances to respond to outlying values or multiple clusters. Bootstrapping generates empirical approximation of distributions from the original dataset.

Standard error values are made with 95% confidence based on this bootstrapping procedure. A fixed randomizer variable was utilised to ensure that multiple analyses of between-variable relationships yielded consistent results.

Due to the heteroscedasticity of the data, bootstrapping was more appropriate than data transformations or stepwise regression procedures (MacKinnon, et al., 2002). Descriptive statistic calculations for the bootstrapping procedure can be seen in Appendix 8.5.6.

The following section 5.3 describes outcomes that utilised the bootstrapping procedures in the findings.

5.3 Tests of Difference for Qualitative Use

5.3.1 Primary Findings

Several analyses were conducted to examine difference as a function of participant biographical categorisations and psychometric scores. Findings are briefly described below in terms of 4 layers of interpretation, identifying scales of difference, complementarity, and direction of difference between cases (schools).

In the first layer of interpretation there is a supportable difference in psychometric wellbeing scores between different cases in the study. A full-factorial ANOVA was conducted to compare the group differences between schools on the 11 subscores of the SDQ-II, the total SDQ-II score, and the BMSLSS score. Results can be seen in Appendices 8.5.7 and 8.5.8. Pairwise and Bonferroni corrected (.05/6 = 0.0083·) multiple comparisons were applied to create a rank order for schools on each variable. This demonstrated a supportable difference between schools A/D and schools B/C (Cluster 1, Cluster 2 respectively) for both SDQ-II subscores and BMSLSS (see Appendices 8.5.7 and 8.5.8).

For the second layer of interpretation the focus was on isolating particularly relevant supportable differences based on the previously discussed factor analysis. Group differences were compared between schools on the 11 subscores of the SDQ-II. Appendix 8.5.9 demonstrates supportable differences for the 11 SDQ-II subscores, and Appendix 8.5.6 contains the adjusted means and medians for the subscores on which this was based. Using the Bonferroni corrected (.05/6 = 0.0083·) multiple comparisons between schools based on the factors, verbal ability can be seen to be supportably different between schools (see Appendices 8.5.8 and 8.5.10). The factors can be considered supportable for numerical differentiation because the rank order pattern is

reflected throughout the statistical tests on the three factors. Even where some tests did not meet the full criteria of statistical significance there was still a quantifiable difference based on the cases.

The third layer of interpretation addressed a different dimension of the data – the biographical categorisations of participants, including gender, SpLD diagnoses, additional support diagnoses (based on local assessments), and current support interventions. The complexity of the third layer for interpretation means that it couldn't have been considered for quantitative assessment, but none the less there are numerous insights from this level of inquiry that can numerically support the qualitative data. Between subject effects using a full-factorial MANOVA revealed several supportable differences.

Participants with dyspraxia were found to have supportably different SDQ-II subscores for factor 1 variables (SDQ-II self-concept subscores: Verbal Ability, General Self, General School), indicating that having dyspraxia had the most extraneous impact on results for the current sample. This finding supports studies by Dixon (2003) and Stephenson and Chesson (2008) which identify wellbeing as at risk for this group. As could be expected based on the literature (Lewis & Norwich, 2004), participants with notably lower verbal ability on the SDQ-II received support from teaching assistants. This outcome is consistent with this type of support being allocated to students for whom common inclusive classroom learning presents a challenge. Similarly a supportable difference was found with participants in receipt of specific SEN interventions or who were taught in exclusively SEN settings for some lessons, in terms of their SDQ-II scores for quality of same sex and opposite sex relationships. These two dimensions of self-concept have been shown to correlate with other measures for sociability and social skills, and social self-concept including Smith and Betz (2000), Guimond, et al. (2006) and Guerin, Marsh and Famose (2003). This indicates that SEN interventions for the present study may contribute to a detrimental effect on social status (Norwich & Kelly, 2010; Dagnan & Sandhu, 1999). Riddick

(2000) argues that SEN labelling can be a serious barrier to positive student social experiences in school. A variety of other findings from these analyses are available in Appendix 8.5.11.

Numerous analytic processes were undertaken in pursuit of a further analysis. Such approaches were pursued because the qualitative data the researcher had become immersed in indicated that there may be considerably more worthy findings to explore. A multiple regression analysis is reported in Appendices 8.5.11 and 8.5.12. In the first group a participant having dyspraxia or dyscalculia had a negative support relationship for the Verbal Ability, General Self, and SDQ-II Total. This strongly indicates that having multiple SpLDs has a numerically supportable impact on the primary factor that indicates wellbeing based on the psychometric measures.

In the second group, participants in receipt of exclusionary types of support (Exclusive Support and TA Support) Opposite Sex Relations and Same Sex Relations are negatively affected. This pair of results strongly indicates that social relationships for the current sample are endangered by receiving support that isolates them from their peers or removes them from mainstreamed classes. Such a notion is widely supported in research, including key studies by Farrell, Balshaw and Polat (1999) and Cremin, Thomas and Vincett (2005).

<u>Summary:</u>

- Cluster 1 schools significantly better wellbeing scores than Cluster 2
- Measures of verbal ability, general self-confidence, and school self-confidence were the strongest predictors of overall wellbeing for the sample
- Cluster 1 schools predictor of trustworthiness and honesty

5.3.2 Additional Findings

The forth layer of interpretation is a selection of interesting supportable differences not related to the prominent factors. Data can be seen in Appendix 8.5.9. With the SDQ-II subscores it is important to remember that scores represent participant's perceptions of themselves, rather than any objective measure of ability or quality in a particular area. The nature of the subscores is important when evaluating the data and addressing surprising or confusing relationships (or lack thereof) in the data. In other cases interpretation of some aspects of the data requires further outside information in order to draw explanations, and this will therefore inform the IPA analysis.

Physical Ability subscore was supportably different between schools. Bonferroni corrected multiple comparisons revealed that participants from School A were particularly different in this regard. In essence at School A engagement in sport was a predictor of student wellbeing (based on the current sample). This was not the case for other schools. According to Leung, et al. (2015) objective measures of physical ability are substantially correlated with the Physical Ability subscore. This finding is further explored in the IPA analysis to follow. Similarly Physical appearance subscore was supportably different between schools, and the corrected multiple comparison identified that participants from School A again scored highest in this. This is possible due to the fact that School A offers integrated therapeutic support and supports students to see difference more positively. This is further discussed in the IPA analysis.

The Honesty/Trustworthiness subscore was supportably different between schools. Bonferroni corrected multiple comparisons revealed that participants from School D were particularly different in this regard. At School D honest and trustworthy behaviour and attitudes are a predictor of student wellbeing (based on the current sample). This was not the case for other schools. This is further discussed in the IPA analysis.

Summary:

- Dyspraxia/multiple SpLDs highest predictor of reduced wellbeing (primary factor) for the sample
- Individual student support plan summaries reveal correlation between more exclusionary/differentiated forms of support, and negative social relationships
- For School A, sport and appearance (psychometric) are strong predictors of overall wellbeing

5.4 Other Complimenting Sources of Data

Several sources of qualitative data were collected during the study. Photographs taken by the children provided a rich visual context with which to initiate stimulating discussion about wellbeing in semi-structured interviews. Observations of classes and interviews with teachers gave a different adult perspective on factors that lead to wellbeing.

Analyses needed to preserve these distinct perspectives, minimizing biased perspectives from the researcher. Participants were encouraged to lead the way in this part of the research, hopefully giving them confidence to explore openly their experiences and feelings. This approach was based primarily on the work of Punch (2002a) and Casserly (2012), in revealing a world normally hidden to adult researchers.

5.4.1 Observations

Classroom observations were conducted to observe the behaviour of participants and teachers. Observations were based on a typology of inclusive practices taken from a selection of the literature. The researcher used the typology to categorise separate activities (phases of the lesson) into one of three descriptors for 22 criteria. The researcher also recorded field notes to support this, recording details and examples of what was being observed.

Appendix 8.5.13 contains counts of the typology scoring. The researcher did not observe exactly the same amount of lessons at each school, and lessons were organised into different numbers of phases. Therefore the data is better represented in Illustration 5.1 and Illustration 5.2. Illustration 5.1 shows the relative level of observed practice fitting descriptors 1, 2, and 3 for each of the 22 criteria from across all schools in the study. In interviews with teachers who were observed, there was agreement that the structure of the observation schedule was reasonable,

practical, and applicable to their teaching. The findings in Illustration 5.1 represent a snapshot observation by the researcher. It cannot be taken as representative of the standard of teaching practice from those interviewed, however it can be noted that the teacher interviews represented practice different than what was observed.

For the first criteria Range of Formats the first descriptor of 'Only one available task' was the most commonly observed. In the majority of lesson phases students were given no choice over what tasks they undertook; however throughout lessons many activities were taking part. Alternatives were also not well promoted in the majority of classes. In School A during one observation students were each given a bespoke workload for the learning involving differentiated materials, and in School D the researcher observed one teaching giving the class the freedom to work through one of variety of tasks, where the less favourable would be gone through with support at a later date. The overall content of materials was not solely writing based, or offered

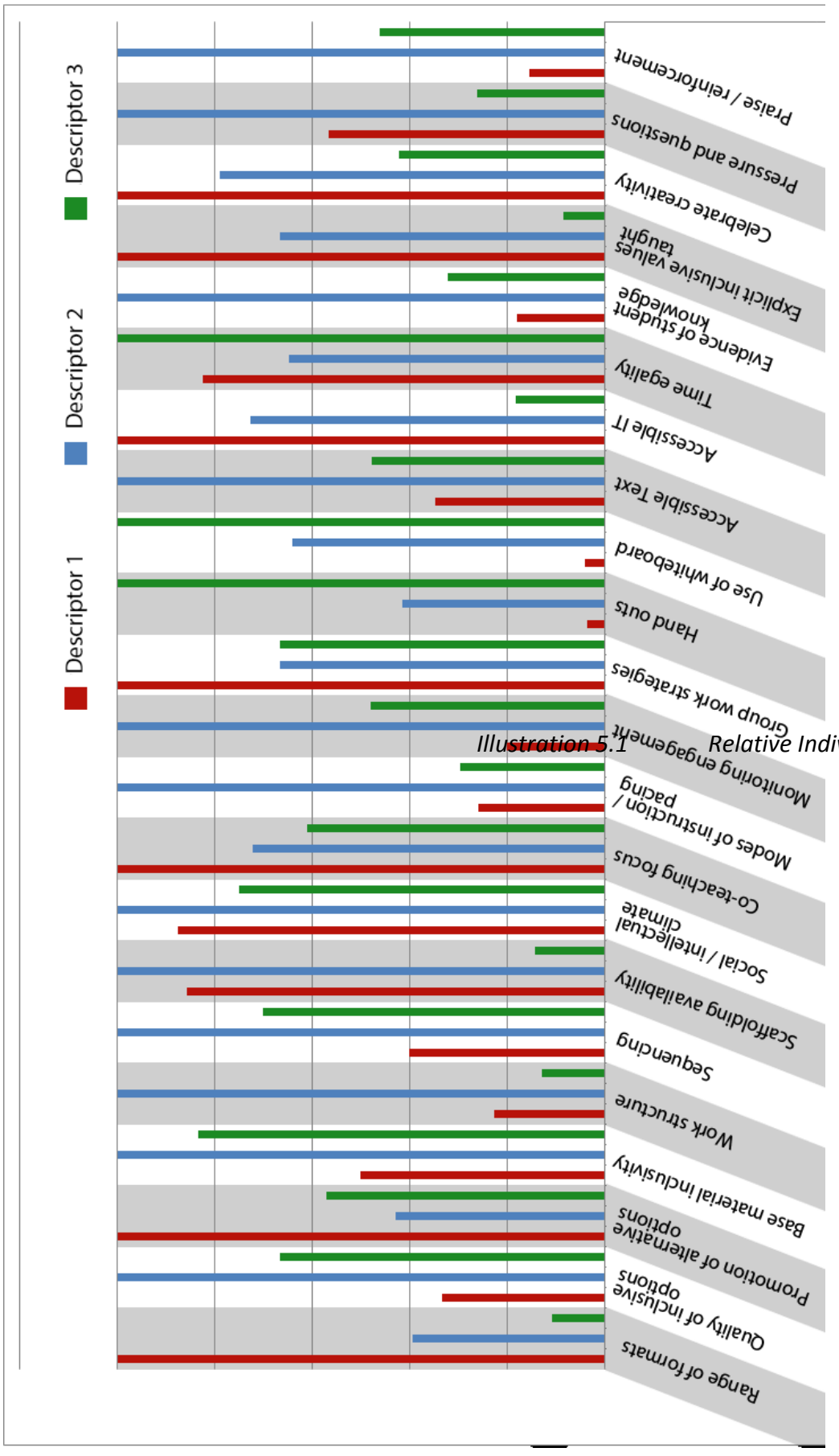


Illustration 5.1 *Relative Individual Observation Descriptor*

alternatives to written based work for the learning. Where there was a single written task available, it was most common for the material to be in dyslexia friendly format (British Dyslexia Association, 2004).

Where hand-outs were issued in a phase of the lesson the vast majority were in a dyslexia friendly format, and well labelled so that they could support reviews of work and revision, however there were some examples of text that was challenging, including text integrated into a 'fish' design, or at School B were text was generally reproduced in a small font. School B also appeared to 'cut costs' by printing A5 worksheets that students completed in workbooks. Doing so may not produce materials most suitable for revision. Other formats of text including Overhead projections, PowerPoint slides, and other paper based materials were predominantly described as partly compliant with dyslexia friendly formatting guidelines. Often materials contained some text or content that was well formatted, but with other sections that were less so – particularly fonts or colour schemes that may be hard for students with visual stress, or small or confusing style formats there could generally be considered hard to access.

In the classes that were observed by the researcher, teachers used a wide variety of means of engaging with students, including interactive work. There were very few examples where teachers expected students to learn direct from a book, during an observation at School D the teacher advised students that if they felt they didn't understand something then they could independently look up answers in books in the room. Built into this dialogue was typically reflection on, and development of skills as part of learning, which allowed slower students time to catch up. In School C and School D students were observed having a structured opportunity to help other weaker students with work. Students having difficulty or working slowly were also generally observed as having extra attentive support, or has having access to scaffolding tools to help them in approximately half of observations. Classrooms at School A were abundant with

scaffolding tools students could use independently, including word squares, thesauruses, electronic spellers, personal wipe-boards to support idea creation and memory, and others. School A worksheets and classwork also inherently scaffold learning with the use of games and prompts. Students at School C and School D were observed using the accelerated reading programme to independently monitor their own attainment and progress in reading. In one activity observed at School D students used writing frames to enable them to enhance their writing and produce a formal style with minimal teacher explanation.

A lecturing or transmissive teaching style was rarely predominant in a lesson phase, however there were examples at School B and School C where teachers occasionally prompted students to copy from the board, or where teachers taught from slides without interaction for extended periods. During observations group work was not particularly common, or group work exercises were very short. Group work most often consisted of discussion on the topic, from which a group representative presented to the class. At School A however the culture was very different. Approximately 40% of observed teaching involved students working in groups. Groups were strategically divided based on recent performance data, and teachers structured group activities in order to motivate all members.

Few teachers used whiteboards at all to put up information by hand, and there were few situations observed where students were required to copy down writing from the board. In some classes students made use of ICT to scaffold their written work, or to access accessible content online to support learning at their own pace; however in the majority of observations ICT did not play a significant role. At School D ICT was used during several observations for differentiated work, educational games, or for students who struggled with hand written work. Some students in School D had access to personal laptop computers.

In School A and School D teachers used a wide variety of multimodal teaching techniques. In class videos were used in science, as well as practical activities including students using tuning

forks, and acting out wave forms and particle collisions in a fun 'Mexican wave' group task. At School A multisensory approaches were championed in all lessons, including using images to aid pronunciation, games and activities with phoneme identification and spelling, and using stethoscopes in biology. In one observed task, a sequence of multimodal activities built up to students producing written work.

In several observations students were required to answer questions in front of their peers, however in the majority of these situations the teacher supported and encouraged participation in a way that acknowledged all input as good input. In interviews with teachers the majority said that they used this method as it was important for students to share ideas verbally and engaged discussion, but they were aware that some students felt negatively pressurised when put on the stop like that. Praise was a common approach to support said engagement. During observations at School B however teachers appeared comparatively less supportive of students, with in one example a teacher criticising members of the class for incorrect answers and scruffy written work, and shaming the whole class for poor performance given that the work set was supposed to be for a younger age group. One student at School B appeared embarrassed and upset by his performance and then became violent against another student. In contrast at School D a teacher explicitly states to the class that they will not be penalised for writing less, but that quality and imagination are important. Similarly in School A students were given stars for how often they tried, not just how often they were right.

The criteria Social/Intellectual Climate was the most evenly distributed across the study, with only mild variation in the counts. Competitive task structures were observed, as well as students working together cooperatively and helping others to develop their understanding. Valued and varied input appeared welcome in the majority of classes where teachers handled input from students of all abilities. Several teachers interviewed commented that they felt that all three

approaches were appropriate at different times for different reasons. At School A however there was a greater emphasis on supportive dynamics. Teachers allocated free time as part of lessons, and a culture of students supporting one-another was frequently promoted. At School B and School C classes were observed being tested on their knowledge, and students were then expected to reveal their score to the class with a show of hands.

Co-teaching (with two qualified teachers) was not observed during the study. The primary focus of teaching assistants was observed in the study involved them working with one or two specific children; however some lessons were observed where teaching assistants moved freely around the class. Less situations were observed where the class teacher was directly working with the weaker or struggling students. Several of the classes observed also did not have a teaching assistant present; however those are included under Descriptor 3 for that criterion. Teachers in the majority of classes were regularly getting feedback to check understanding from the students, or using teaching assistants to do so. It was also commonly observed where teachers relied on teaching assistants to support weaker students, or where students who were not engaging in classwork ignored. Behaviour was particularly problematic in some classes, and as a result teaching was directed at only those conforming to the teacher's discipline.

The teaching of explicit inclusive values was observed in some classes with the use of literature or discussion that drew from culturally diverse perspectives. In School C racial tensions were explored in an English class using modern television shows as a comprehendible reference. Inclusive respect was explicitly taught in both Humanities and in English lessons, and the subject of diversity and disability featured in a science lesson. In all cases inclusion and diversity was not a main of focal topic of study, however teaching staff nonetheless represented in these ideas in their discourse. In School A two observed lessons had a greater focus on diversity as an ethos for attainment and grading, where students displayed fluency with these concepts. In a class in School C students were asked to discuss the concept of wellbeing, and class began with a student

lead relaxation exercise to help the class focus. In School A students and teachers openly explained the importance of not marking work in red pen, as red implies that it is bad.

The classes observed in the study consisted of English, Maths, Science, Humanities, and German. During these classes creative or artistic solutions were seldom utilised or accepted as a means of learning. During some observed English and Maths classes practical activities including drawing and producing presentation materials were undertaken, however these phases of the lessons were short and did not contribute particularly to the identified learning outcomes. There was however evidence in several classrooms of creative activities being celebrated and used in the curriculum, and when interviewing teachers the majority had a very positive regard for creative and artistic practices in their teaching.

As would be expected from the range of different schools, the most common descriptors were the central ones. These are consistent in the literature with good practice, and were identified by the majority of teachers during interview as the most reasonable on average.

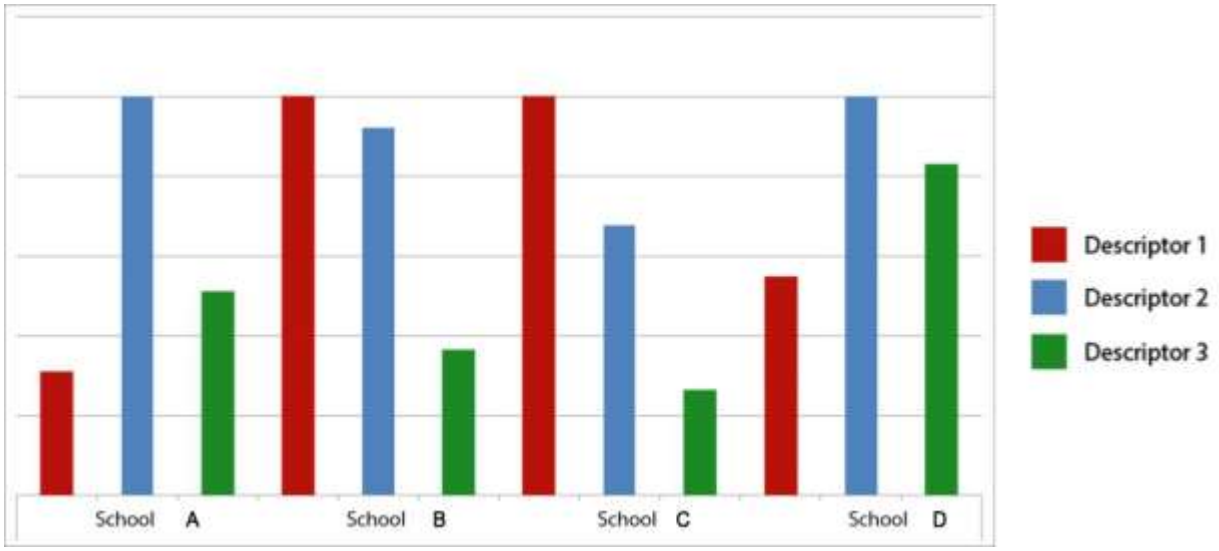


Illustration 5.2 Relative Cumulative Observation Descriptor Frenquencies

Observation data displays a clear divide, as demonstrated in Illustration 5.2. Two distinct patterns emerge between schools for the relative levels of observed practice fitting descriptors 1, 2, and 3. One pair of schools (Schools A and D) in the observations can be characterised with predominant descriptor 2 practice, seconded by descriptor 3, and finally with minimal descriptor 1 practice. Descriptor 2 generally describes good practice, while descriptor 3 describes measures to achieve outstanding inclusive support – based upon a broad selection of descriptions from the literature (Kizeiwicz & Biggs, 2007; Florian & Linklater, 2009; Florian & Black-Hawkins, 2010; Mansfield, Welton and Halx, 2012).

The alternate pair of schools (Schools C and B) in the observations present with a pattern of predominating descriptor 1 teaching practice, with secondly descriptor 2 practices, and finally minimal descriptor 3 practices being observed in the lessons.

This division is further explored and categorised in the IPA analysis.

Summary:

- Teaching approaches observed in Cluster 1 schools were more likely to be Descriptor 3 (more inclusive) than Descriptor 1 (less inclusive). The opposite was true for Cluster 2 schools
- Interventions, interactions and modes of working were predominantly limited to one approach, however teachers' approach to support and engagement with all students was predominately positive
- Observed digital access was minimal, and where observed it was poorly used / supported
- Observed learning environment were constructive and interactive, and predominately avoided rote learning approaches
- Observed teaching / learning was largely free of behaviour problems, and classrooms appeared to meet the majority of the needs of students

5.4.2 Photographic exercise

Participants were prompted to respond to each photograph in series using minimal instructions, as with the instructions given before the photographic exercise. This aimed to minimise bias, and to allow the participants to use their interpretation of basic concepts of positive and negative experience to guide their discussion. In many cases participants appeared to take time to reinterpret the images they had taken; participating in an analysis of the images themselves, before explaining them. In most cases photographs had been taken the day before the interview. When participants were debriefed several described the activity as enjoyable and a good way to show their experiences. Punch (2002a) reported similar experiences when using visual approaches to engage children in research that elicited their perspectives. A simple tally of photographic content (from the researcher's perspective) did not identify any trends across stratified categories, including gender, school, and specific learning difficulty diagnosis; however this does not take into account how participants interpreted what was depicted as positive or negative. Participants on average took pictures that represented various domains within their school.

Participants often took photos of social spaces, classrooms, monuments, or photos that were on display in the school that depicted events of personal significance. It was necessary to set the boundary that participants could not interrupt lessons going on around the school by entering occupied classrooms, and therefore many of the photos were of doors with a sign indicating a particular lesson or subject area. This unexpectedly created a limitation for a content analysis, because some images lacked dimensions for categorisation. Only the participant could interpret what each image meant to them. The task of depicting things that had positive or negative associations for participants, appeared to have been clearly comprehended. Performing a content analysis raised the question however of whether the photos alone described wellbeing

rather than more rudimentary preferences. Aldridge (2006) reports a similar situation when using photography to explore the experiences of adults with learning disabilities. Aldridge highlights that the process may not meet established criteria for research methods because the outcomes do not afford clear analyses; however Aldridge claims that 'good' research methods must also be authentic and sympathetic to the participants and that photographic research can provide insight into 'unseen or hard to reach locations' (Aldridge, 2012). Table 5.1 contains basic categories identified by the researcher in the photographs for the entire study. Some photographs have been categorised as belonging to more than one category, and therefore the percentages individually refer to the entire body of photographs.

Weber (2008) suggests that 'The whole is often greater than or different from the sum of the parts' when dealing with visual research materials. With the photos in the present study an interpretation of the overall collection as in Table 5.1 indicates that lessons have an impact on student wellbeing. It also indicates that socialising is significant. Furthermore green spaces appear to hold significance for participants. A deeper analysis of the content of the photos, particularly when categorised by each different school begin to tell other stories. The subjectivity of the researcher in exploring such connections however must be acknowledged. Given that the researcher visited these sites, and walked, observed, talked, and lived temporarily in these surroundings, absorbing the atmosphere and character of those places, the connections that are seen reflect the combination of these things (Maxwell, 2012). Although not irrelevant, this perspective differs too greatly from the perspective of the participants who took the photo and who decided their meaning. The participant's history with the place is entirely different, and their sense of identity there is diametrically opposed to that of a visiting researcher – given special access to ask questions seldom asked in that environment (Punch, 2002b). In Foucauldian terms, the way the researcher behaves liberates them, but constrains the participants in a socially constructed and mutually accepted framework that dictates access to and the

interpretation of knowledge, and acceptable actions (McCabe & Holmes, 2009). Recognising this power vacuum, for the researcher to interpret the visual creations would undermine the purpose of the activity being participatory (Nic Gabhainn and Sixsmith, 2006). Illustration 5.3 includes some examples of photographs from the study. Additional photographs are included in Appendix 8.5.14.

Aldridge (2009, 2012) advocates the use of photographic research activities as a gateway exercise for semi-structured interviews. In the present study this was the primary role of the photographic exercise. A key premise of the present study is that students with specific learning difficulties may be vulnerable compared with typical peers. Pillow (2003) describes how participatory photographic analysis is an emancipatory process that builds reciprocal relationships between the researcher and participants. Likewise Whitty and Wisby (2007) highlights how important self-efficacy and voice are for positive wellbeing in children (and adults). The gateway activity also allowed the researcher to build some rapport with the participants, before engaging in more challenging conversations about aspects of their wellbeing (Arksey, 2004). By listening more than speaking, the researcher was able to allow the participant to choose what was discussed. Radley and Taylor (2003) use photographic participatory research in such a way to elicit further responses, noting that it offers a 'culturally fashioned extension of the senses', and that when working with vulnerable children may be used to gather evidence that other methods may miss (Aldridge, 2012).

	Percentage
Green Spaces	22%
Entertainments	2%
Social Spaces	12%
Monuments	2%
Resources	16%
Lessons	57%
Sporting Achievements	7%
Class Work	2%
Food	2%
Pastoral	8%
School Aesthetic / Buildings	4%

Table 5.1 Content Analysis of Photographs (N=74; Photographs=426)

With one exception all the participants were able to complete the activity according to the given guidance. Each participant produced six or more pictures, however it was necessary to delete some where participants had accidentally captured a fellow student in their shot. For the purpose of maintaining anonymity of the participating schools it is unfortunate that some photos of significance cannot be published in the research. Identifying features or school emblems featured in several photos – particularly frequently where sporting achievement was depicted in some way. Some steps have been taken to anonymise some photographic materials included where possible, and for completeness.

Depicted from left to right: Monument celebrating school, French class, Forest school activities, IT suite

Illustration 5.3 Student Participant Sample Photographic Co

5.5 Interviews and Interpretative Phenomenological Analysis

To properly conduct an IPA a researcher must diligently follow a process of iterative steps transforming interview transcripts into a coded lattice of organised rich context that can be integrated with other preliminary analyses to develop themes (Smith, Flowers & Larkin, 2009). In this section the researcher gives a brief description of the process, with indicated literature to direct the reader through parts of the decision making process, and where longer accounts of the processes are given. The researcher used the NVivo 10 software (as recommended by Callary, Rathwell and Young (2015)) throughout all stages of the IPA described in this section. Various application specific features are referred to.

The process of transcribing interview data was more complex and functional than with other types of qualitative analysis, such as thematic. Initially digital files were prepared that included typed transcripts, including conventions for pauses, hesitation, clearly spoken grammar, and any inaudible sections. At the same time confidential references were removed from the transcripts, and a record of pseudonyms for individuals and institutions was recorded in a spreadsheet. Photographs from the student participants were then compiled with according transcripts so that elements of visual images could later be used in the IPA if necessary. Finally different classification schemes were set up NVivo 10 for different stages of coding. This included parallel hermeneutic coding groups containing elements and codes for each hermeneutic cycle (HC). Sample pages of example transcripts at this stage are in Appendix 8.5.16 and 8.5.24 for student and teacher interviews respectively.

The next step was to begin to follow the HCs, iteratively analysing and reducing transcripts into coding (Smith and Osborn, 2003). Each HC involved parallel analyses. The first set of coding within each HC involved reviewing the transcript in terms of multiple over lapping conceptual sections that emerged as part of the process. Using NVivo 10, it was possible to easily highlight,

classify, and comment upon overlapping text. Interview transcripts were read repeatedly, and given initial coding. Codes that were assigned while reading were not based on any typology, but instead were grounded in the interview content. Maintaining participant perspectives in the analysis required structuring all coding based upon the data, as described in Schutz's (1967) social phenomenology method.

The first process (from here on referred to as the left hermeneutic) focussed on summarising small sections and coding them according to concept or meaning, and then commenting on whether the verbal language used and the tone of the section of the transcript matched up. This was particularly used where there were vocal differences in the audio which suggested that information was not forthcoming, or that language used perhaps had another meaning to it. Particularly within the student interviews it was also necessary to look for language which appeared to be meaningless – aphorisms or empty responses to questions. Although efforts had been made in data collection, it was not always possible to ensure full and explained responses from prompting. Even at this early stage of coding, it was necessary to group certain codes, creating meta-codes. This was important because upon reading even within the same transcript, connections between coded content became apparent. As the process continued, going through each transcript, these became even more relevant.

The second analysis (from here on referred to as the right hermeneutic) within each HC placed the researcher's perspective centrally (Smith, Jarman & Osborn, 1999). This analysis was used on an ongoing basis to attempt to record conceptual consolidation and comprehension of the content through an academic perspective (Smith, Flowers & Larkin, 2009). As an education and psychology researcher, meaning and interpretation of words and emerging relationships in a theoretical context studied by the research took onto intuitive leaps (Finlay, 2012). This produced codes relating to particular theories, or conclusions from other studies, highlighted

phrases coded as exemplifying aspects of theory, and the emergence of proto-themes. Proto-themes were coded separately in NVivo 10, in order to allow them to evolve separately from other codes throughout the iterative process. It was important to acknowledge in the early stage that emerging proto-themes had the potential to subjectively guide the researcher towards interpreting data in particular ways. This was partly due to the relatively large number of participant interview transcripts (74 students, 7 teachers). Despite the natural attraction to

a) Find a simpler more direct outcome from the process
b) Establish and categorise logically in relation to beliefs
c) Assist memory my using the proto-themes as mental reference points

The researcher had to be diligent in avoiding these. NVivo 10 was helpful in this regard because it was simplistic to re-evaluate the same piece of text, the same transcript, or other transcripts, whilst pursuing a single HC. As well as the ease of connecting between and changing coded content, being able to easily see an overview of codes and proto-themes meant that particular transcript content could easily be evaluated against these, and additional codes or branches added to accommodate content dynamically.

The two parallel analyses were applied in order to achieve consolidation in five HCs, however in each HC the development and goals differed. The process of HCs began with very flexible data sources and an approach based on multiplicity of coding, and concludes in themes. The process through the HCs also differed between student and teacher sample interviews, and therefore the following description of the HCs is presented separately.

5.5.1 Student Interviews

Interviews began by the researcher reviewing the photographs the participants had taken. The researcher engaged the participants in discussion about the meaning of the photos, eliciting anecdotal information, feelings, and pursing abstract discussion about their interpretation of the images. Following discussion of the photographs, the interviews led onto semi-structured questions about school experiences, classroom practices, and personal wellbeing.

The following HCs took place for all student participants; however for a few student participants the third HC did not include significant changes. In these few cases, there had been a limited amount of interview content or responses had not formed many coherent ideas, so proto-themes had coalesced very simply. The first HC was completed for all transcripts, and then similarly the second HC was completed for transcripts, and this continued for the third, fourth, and fifth. A different randomised order for the transcripts was used each HC, in order to reduce reader fatigue.

For the student interviews, the fourth and fifth HC are used in a novel fashion to consolidate individual transcripts into cases based on school. This approach is outlined below. A detailed description of the five hermeneutic cycles for the student IPA analysis can be found in Appendix 8.5.15.

5.5.1.1 First Hermeneutic Cycle

- Read, and re-read transcript
- Refer to pictures, summarise in the left hermeneutic
- Identify motivation cues and meaning behind non-verbal and pauses/stutters/etc.
- Right hermeneutic pursued unconstrained by left hermeneutic

A sample page of an example transcript at this stage is in Appendix 8.5.17.

5.5.1.2 Second Hermeneutic Cycle

- Repeat first cycle steps process recursively
- Scrutinise right hermeneutic using left hermeneutic outcomes
- Explore language patterns
- Highlight directions or general narratives in each transcript

A sample page of an example transcript at this stage is in Appendix 8.5.18.

5.5.1.3 Third Hermeneutic Cycle

- Explore meta-narrative concepts
- Note “universality” quality in superordinate and proto themes for each section
- Continue recursive scrutiny, working towards reduction / striation
- Scrutinise right hermeneutic

A sample page of an example transcript at this stage is in Appendix 8.5.19.

5.5.1.4 Fourth Hermeneutic Cycle

- Explore schools as cases – combining different transcript analyses
- Evaluate transitional congruities
- Explore collective meaning
- Explore integrating previously anomalous content
- Cross reference right hermeneutic concepts

A sample page of an example transcript at this stage is in Appendix 8.5.20.

5.5.1.5 Fifth Hermeneutic Cycle

- Recursive reduction / striation of collective proto and superordinate themes
- Further scrutiny of emerging relationships and structures – particularly those forming school cases

A sample page of an example transcript at this stage is in Appendix 8.5.21. The structure of the resulting themes is contained within the theme composite overview in Appendix 8.5.22.

5.5.2 Teacher Interviews

Teacher interviews had a different structure than student interviews. They began with 8 open semi-structured questions, to which dialogue between interviewer and interviewee broadened the response to each question, in turn. Although particular questions had different focusses, all questions elicited anecdotal information, feelings, practical approaches, and theoretical knowledge. After the 8 questions participants discussed the classroom observation schedule that the researcher had used to observe their teaching, and participants provided their practical and

theoretical feedback on the structure and content. Finally participants were asked to comment on excerpts from the interviews of student participants at their school. The main difference in approach in contrast with student participant transcripts was that the depth of 'expert' or theoretical content was intensely more complicated. Theory in text also often directly entered (but did not always persist) the right hermeneutic. This presented challenges which are addressed in the first HC process discussed below.

The following HCs took place for all teacher participants; however some teacher interviews did not have any significant changes in the fifth HC. This occurred because either

a) The participants had expressed consistent views that did not deviate as much as others
b) The participants had not offered as many opinions, or had answered briefly
c) There was less sub textual or other cues in the recording and transcript than others

In these cases it was easier to develop coherent proto-themes quickly. The first HC was completed for all transcripts, and then similarly the second HC was completed for transcripts, and this continued for the third, fourth, and fifth. The same order for reading undertaking the HCs was used each time. This approach was chosen because unlike the student participants, the teacher interviews were considerably longer, and contained diverse, and very individual content that was memorable, and not easily confused with others.

In the fifth HC (and in a few cases the fourth), connections were being drawn between participants in terms of proto-themes and codes, however it is only in the sixth HC, that themes were consolidated across all transcripts. The approach is outlined below. A detailed description of the five hermeneutic cycles for the teacher IPA analysis can be found in Appendix 8.5.23.

5.5.2.1 First Hermeneutic Cycle

- Read, and re-read transcript
- Identify motivation cues and meaning behind non-verbal and pauses/stutters/etc.
- Right hermeneutic pursued unconstrained by left hermeneutic

5.5.2.2 Second Hermeneutic Cycle

- Repeat first cycle steps process recursively
- Scrutinise right hermeneutic using left hermeneutic outcomes
- Explore language patterns
- Highlight directions or general narratives in each transcript

5.5.2.3 Third Hermeneutic Cycle

- Explore meta-narrative concepts
- Intense scrutiny of left hermeneutic to avoid confusion with student narratives
- Continue recursive scrutiny, working towards reduction / striation
- Restructuring of right hermeneutic beyond boundaries of semi-structured interview questions
- Evaluate frequency of concepts to guide determination of validity

A sample page of an example transcript at this stage is in Appendix 8.5.25.

5.5.2.4 Fourth and Fifth Hermeneutic

- Continue recursive scrutiny
- For several transcripts, this stage involved a restructuring of proto themes
- Iterative reduction without dismissing incongruous data – honouring all individual perspectives
- Meta narratives and superordinate constructs prioritised by collecting narratives that ran through transcripts and through the entire set
- No division by school cases

Appendix 8.5.26 outlines the peak levels of the hierarchy of themes at the end the fifth HC.

Five distinct themes were extracted which reflected to perceptions and values of the participants. For several themes bifurcated views are represented as opposing teacher 'identities'. These however do not represent any individual teachers' identities, and are intended only to characterise the specific perspectives.

5.6 Overview

In this chapter multiple types of analysis have been examined, and the findings at different stages have been reported. Due to the design of the study, as an IPA incorporating findings from quantitative measures, multimedia formats, and observations, this chapter has presented findings at different stages in a manner that is compatible with this approach. In the next chapter the findings of these various analyses are combined to present the results of the study.

The analyses in this chapter all represent preparatory stages in preparation for IPA themes. The IPA process described so far has transformed interview transcripts into the outline of themes. In the next chapter, these themes are examined in detail, and integrated with observation and psychometric data discussed earlier in this chapter, in order to present the results of the study.

6 . Exploring the Results

This chapter presents the reader with the findings from the analysis explored in the previous chapter, and discusses these findings in relation to theory. As an Interpretative Phenomenological Analysis (IPA), themes contain a broad range of data types, and offer conceptually whole descriptions of integrated phenomena

The previous chapter explored several analysis methods, including numerical psychometric data, observation data, and interview analysis. In the final stages of this IPA themes are formed by integrating all sources of data. This integration is approached by using interview content to structure critique using both theory and complimentary datasets from other analyses. Firstly, themes based on student interviews will be explored and critiqued, and a theoretical context established from the myriad of psychometric and observation data. This will be followed by a critical review of the teacher interview themes, incorporating observation data. These two strands will then be evaluated in terms of intersecting case similarities (such as schools, or other biographical traits), and theoretical deductions, between them.

This approach to the chapter has been chosen in order to satisfy the need to respect independent perspectives on same or similar events between the population of students and teachers. Although observation data is integrated in both cases, observation data is not treated as objective, and the positional bias of observation is discussed in the exploration of the results. The approach also highlights the relative incompleteness of various stages of results and conclusions, stressing that the findings are correlations between data sources, aiming to present a construction of the researcher's work. This differs from other data triangulation approaches that predefine specific order and rationale to types of data (Creswell and Clark, 2004) – instead of considering the flow of data in situ.

In this section, themes from the IPA analysis are individually explored, and transcript excerpts and hermeneutic remarks from the Interpretative Phenomenological Analysis (IPA) are critiqued. This takes several forms, including interrogative justification of quantitative data, and grounding of qualitative data. It is not the aim of each data segment to provide a conclusion or notable remark, but instead to provide support for each theme as a construct representing the multiple datasets. Each theme has its distinct origins in the hermeneutic process described in the previous chapter. The complex iterative processes have separated excerpts into themes. The relevance of these themes is best understood through the rigorous process, and the integration with multiple forms of data. The themes herald the fractal complexity of the plural epistemological relationship described in detail in Chapter 4.

Theme nomenclature at the start, and throughout the process, was a somewhat contentious issue. The rigour of the IPA process justifies sapient classification (Smith, Flowers & Larkin, 2009), and it was the intention of the researcher to base classification in the data, including the language and/or feelings expressed in the transcripts. Transcripts can also be limiting, especially where ethical guidelines prohibit identification of individuals. Perhaps (*and it is a perhaps*), as a result of encouraging this practice, the majority of interviewees very often described anonymous 'identities', or grouped identities – attributing much of their externalised experiences to these/them. This approach was so common, that rather than it emerging as a theme, it simply set the tone for the way the majority of the interviews were constructed. Within each theme, terms are highlighted and described, and are used intentionally evocatively, in order to distil the subtextual impressions that represent the results of the analyses. They are not meant to be' judgmental', but that is left up to reader's judgment.

6.1 Student Interview Themes

Table 6.1 below outlines the themes explored in this section. Within each theme, proto themes are discussed, for which an outline of the composite is summarised in Appendix 8.5.22.

	Summary
I just want teachers to understand	Students without adequate support do not feel in control of themselves; therefore when punished they feel unfairly treated, which can lead to learnt helplessness. Students can transition with support to understand their own needs. Feeling understood and listened to is essential
Safe in the School Community	Vulnerability & resulting bullying can be in classroom, directly related to dyslexia. Academic self-confidence disempowers individuals in other social comparisons Teacher support is essential for safety and transitioning to self-acceptance. Early intervention can reduce these problems arising
My SpLD [does/doesn't] make me Different	SpLD identity can be positive or negative. Opportune social comparisons mitigate. Non-identification results in less emotional investment, and/or reciprocal consequences. SpLD identity identification offers a clearer pathway for defining intervention and support outcomes
Right Teaching, Right Behaviour …	Class size presents problems. SpLD students cannot compensate in more challenging learning environment. Right teaching needs time & attention for engagement. Smart teachers support self-regulation and subvert social motivations
Cluster 1 / Cluster 2	Represents pairs of schools – A&D, B&C

Table 6.1 Student Themes

6.1.1 Cluster 1 / Cluster 2

Cluster 1 / Cluster 2 is an overarching theme that can be identified in several other themes correlating with polar division within. Cluster 1 refers to School A and School D, while Cluster 2 refers to School B and School C. The 4 schools have very different practices, identities and ideologies. The unusual approach of beginning this section with a structural division is justified because of the frequency in which the distinction is apparent throughout the interview data. It is introduced here for reference purposes, and will be critiqued and qualified throughout other themes. Although this division may appear as a binary distinction, the critique of the observations below demonstrates that this construction is driven by the interview data, and used here for illustrative purposes in exploring the research questions.

The Cluster 1 / Cluster 2 divide is supported by the psychometric data gathered in the study, which consists of the analysis performed on Self-Description Questionnaire II (SDQ-II) and the Brief Multidimensional Satisfaction with Life Survey for Students (BMSLSS). These tools in combination are used as a measure of wellbeing, which is explained in detail in Chapter 4. Overall, there is supportable difference where Cluster 1 participants have better wellbeing than participants in Cluster 2. This can be broken down and remains as statistically valid for the BMSLSS score (representing satisfaction with life), the total SDQ-II score (representing global self-confidence), and for particular relevant factor groupings. These combinations elucidate the core relationships within the makeup of self-confidence that drive the Cluster 1 / Cluster 2 divide. The first factor is representative of literacy, school, and general self-confidence. The second factor is representative of mathematical ability and social skills. The third factor represents emotional stability and social skills with the opposite sex. More details of the factoring approach are given in Chapter 5.

These findings mean that the Cluster 1 / Cluster 2 divide in interview data describes aspects of experience for both students and teachers alike, which are interdependently linked to student wellbeing and to key aspects of self-concept that demonstrate how competences pertaining to SpLDs directly impact more global self-perceptions.

6.1.2 I Just Want Teachers to Understand

This first theme combines emerging proto themes which focussed on responsibility for learning, and the performance/delivery of learning outcomes. The hermeneutic process paints pictures of just and unjust perceived scenarios, and explores the ideas of perpetrator vs victim. Participants can be represented on ends of spectrum, with occasional voices expressing a transitional middle position. Either ends of this spectrum are referred to as Blamer or Acknowledger below, however there are also several other right-hermeneutic terms that are explored in demonstrating multiple forms of relationship.

Analyses in the Blamer category typically have a common structure to the story they tell. They are defined primarily by the attitude that being punished in class for bad behaviour (or for other negative outcomes such as not satisfactorily completing work), is the fault, or results from the behaviour, of someone else. Most commonly the target of this blame is the class teacher, but it also can include other students in class.

One participant flippantly expressed that

> **"*If you are waiting for help and they don't come over, then you don't have anything to do* [other than mess around]"**

The participant showed no sign of acknowledging their responsibility, and instead implied that his behaviour was the responsibility of the teacher to manage. Another participant told the researcher that

> ***"before I was hanging around with [those naughty children] [teachers] thought I was a nice kid"***

Again the participant's tone professed their innocent lack of control. This excerpt was in the context of classroom activity, and implied that the participant's productivity had been affected. Blamers do not reflect positively on their bad behaviour, but merely seem to offload responsibility for it to others – often being highly critical of peers. Glazzard (2010) suggest that without proper support students with SpLDs may not feel that they have control over themselves in an environment that conflicts with their innate approaches. Attitudes of diminished responsibility of this kind of also been demonstrably linked with generalisations of this behaviour to wider contexts (Kirk & Reid, 2009).

Classroom observations in the present study across all participating schools show relatively few examples of monitoring of engagement that had a culture of supporting students of all abilities (Illustration 5.1). The same data also shows few examples where there was a failure to monitor altogether. Therefore the middle-ground trend that maximises the number of students in class who are adequately monitored or supportive, may be failing some students. Dobbelsteen, Levin and Oosterbeek (2002) suggest that teacher resources and time-per-student are highly limited, and that this often leads to marginalisation of less attentive students. Despite the best intentions of schools and teachers to facilitate inclusion, classroom behaviour management and limited resources are a reciprocal barrier (Westwood & Graham, 2003).

Miller, Ferguson and Byrne (2000) found that attribution of blame for classroom misbehaviour was most strongly mitigated by the fair and managed response or support of teachers (a time

and resource constrained factor), and the individual vulnerability of students. Several studies support this thesis in claiming students with SpLDs suffer with poor wellbeing, and therefore can be classed as vulnerable. Therefore the student's approach to externally attributing blame or responsibility, results from their support needs. This study has observed policy and practice that could be improved in this regard.

Blamers also display a broad array of attitudes about their learning. A *can't-do* negativity around particular subject areas of key skills such as literacy or mathematics was often apparent. The researcher was told

> **"*I can't do writing … I never get any better*"**
>
> and **"*Maths and English I'd probably avoid*"**

The latter excerpt was said with a tone of remorse; they liked their teacher, but found the work in these classes to result in constant failure, for which they shied away in both their effort and even attendance. This is a common finding in several studies (Sammons, et al., 2011; Ireson & Hallam, 2005), which has been suggested to result from the rigid or traditional structure to core subjects such as these (Sammons, et al., 2011). Norwich (1999) suggests that hierarchical and social values may also inhibit engagement in what may be seen as traditional education. Attitudes towards education have long been recognised to present a problematic and even systemic culture that harms engagement (Di Martino & Zan, 2009; Beers, 2003). Di Martino and Zan (2009, 2011) suggest that significant positive transformations can occur when teaching practice is able to interrupt the narrative of education process with tangential techniques to help students to reimagine the subject – and crucially, their competency.

The *can't do* attitude appeared synonymously with participant views that teaching staff do not understand the struggle that they go through in learning, and that they do not provide adequate support. In essence *it's their fault*. This view was articulated as

"*I just* [want] *teachers to understand more that I need help*"

and **"*teachers don't understand that I'm dyslexic*"**

Numerous participants expressed emotional desperation that teachers weren't taking into account their needs, and particularly that they didn't want to be labelled as stupid or uncooperative in class, just because they were not completing work in a way that was being asked by their teachers. Simmons, Graham and Thomas (2015) highlight that students can describe the relationship between labelling, and how they experience the classroom. Teachers may be limited in their capacity to perceive some problematic outcomes because of devaluing influences that are inherent to certain aim-based teaching and pedagogic structures. The dominant discourses of education are restricted within a 'world of letters', seen as the measure of capability and worth (Verene, 2002).

Children's perspectives of living with SpLDs often impact aspects which both parents and teachers show less understanding (Leitão, et al., 2017). SpLD focused identified traits and needs extent beyond operational based learning constructs, and into social, cultural and attitudinal realms. This study shows that the response to their needs that participants have received from teachers, often does not satisfy these needs. Elliott and Grigorenko (2014) recognises this identity based construction of dyslexia and other SpLDs. However they suggest that the construction is damaging to such individuals because it does not represent an accurately defined learning need. A more individualised approach to identifying learning needs that avoids labelling SpLDs is considered in some of the literature to be a more inclusive approach (Riddick, 2000).

Engaging in critical pedagogy and understanding this variety of need requires effort and resources. Teachers often find themselves limited for resources, and pressured for time. The divisions of labour typified in the performative modern teacher's self-evaluation therefore can exclude many aspects of students' vulnerability (Alexander, Anderson & Gallegos, 2004). Foucault notes the extreme power differential between a teacher, and a vulnerable child (Anderson & Grinberg, 1998). Teachers command the discourse, assign to targets, and describe the outcomes.

Ramus (2014) highlights that there are considerable risks to devaluing diagnoses in terms of the ability to construct adequate policy and practice, and that a statistical or biologically based definition of dyslexia or SpLDs are not the best existing definitions in current research. Ramus (2014) also points out that the social construction of dyslexia is being put at risk by challenges to statements, such as the excerpts referred to above, as 'excuses' (Elliott & Nicolson, 2016). Some teachers already sometimes mistrust pleas for help from students who claim to have difficulties because of the dyslexia (Gwernan-Jones & Burden, 2010). The debated culture of the voracity of dyslexic need appears to create many distressing outcomes for students. Furthermore, with the numerous studies revealing the under reported or diagnosed cases of SpLDs in children, ensuring schools have practices to inclusively support 'dyslexia' are essential (Ramus, 2014; Bhagat, 2007).

So far this theme has demonstrated the term Blamer is not accusation, and that there are justified theoretical and data driven explanations. With both perspectives in this theme justice emerges a driving ideal – a value learnt the hard way, and sought by Blamers and Acknowledgers alike in a process of personal development. One participant commented that

> **"*I like a teacher that knows I find it a bit harder to concentrate, and* [some of my teachers don't] *understand that*"**

Another participant bitterly told the researcher

> **"[Do you get support?] – *No, always no!*"**

Underlying this are *prior* experiences that differ from the present state. References to primary school teaching and/or having been taught at another secondary school were common. An example of this comparison would be

> **"[in primary school I was at such a] *low level … but now that I've moved up to the higher group*"**

In the wealth of the literature, the transition from primary school to secondary school can be difficult for children with SpLDs (Hughs, Banks & Terras, 2013). The process of providing support is often not well managed, and can cause particularly high levels or stress and anxiety in students with SpLDs. Psychosocial development can also be hindered for such individuals during (and after until supported) the transition. Although there is more longitudinal research into the transition for students with SpLDs, studies consistently describe *inconsistent* approaches to support for students with SpLDs between primary and secondary school – and that this creates significant psychological and learning issues (Hughes, Banks & Terras, 2013; Kelly, 2015). Furthermore the type of information, the detail and consistency of transference documentation including education health and care plans, to secondary schools, and how these were evaluated and utilised by secondary schools, was highly variable (Vaz, et al., 2014). Kelly (2015) demonstrates the need for detailed and personalised introductions and transitions to secondary school for students with SpLDs, which is focussed on listening to the opinion of the student, and developing tailored support.

Blamers express that their voice is not heard or respected, and describe an undemocratic approach by teachers in deciding their fate. This sense of powerlessness undermines their motivation, as demonstrated by phrases such as

"I find it stressful when I ask the teacher, and he doesn't listen when I ask him for help"

Students with SpLDs can often experience frustration and hopelessness when their ability to complete tasks without adequate support results in failure. Sideridis (2007) describes goal-avoidant scenarios which result specifically from the type of experiences expressed by participants in this study. The thresholds for engagement are mitigated by stress and reward alike (Glazzard, 2010). Blamers may be on a development path that is unfortunately predictable. Goal avoidant behaviours over longer periods of time can lead to hopelessness and depression, and cause individual to be isolated from the social and cultural benefits of structured learning (Lackaye, et al., 2006; Ingesson, 2007; Alexander-Passe, 2007). Therefore the current negative attributions towards teacher responses may represent a relative positive, or be seen as evidence of remaining resilience (Ridsdale, 2005).

Teaching resources are stretched, and this can affect students with SpLDs disproportionately. Hornstra, et al. (2010) suggest however that despite teacher's knowledge of the social acceptable values and expectations for supporting students with SpLDs, that many teachers do not offer the same level of attention, nor expect good results from students with certain diagnostic labels. A self-fulfilling prophecy may therefore exist when resources and attention are consequently not applied – as is the apparent feeling of some participants in the current study. These attitudes are confirmed by Gwernan-Jones and Burden (2010) who demonstrate a wide variety of attitudes and inadequate training for pre-service/early-service school teachers in the UK.

Some Blamers may be on their way to becoming Acknowledgers, where participants express solutions to their issues – however these invariably continue to involve the teacher or others changing their behaviour, rather than the participant making changes. One participant stated

"[the teacher] *needs to be more patient with me … let me get away with more*"

This excerpt describes comparative experiences and outcomes, and the participant is able to be positive about their own potential outcomes. Compared with other participants in this particular environment, it appears that the participant feels well supported, and has been well supported in order to develop a strong understanding of their own needs. This cheerful disposition, despite being a Blamer is not uncommon in other research. MacBlain, Long and Dunn (2015) explain how important traits like patience are for teachers to develop beneficial relationships with their students. The relationship must also involve a degree of 'give and take', between student and teacher, in order to push the student towards greater self-efficacy in learning, and transition towards taking more responsibility. Similar variations are shown in some international studies, where it is the relative attitude adjustment that is identified as meaningful (Karande, Mahajan and Kulkarni, 2009).

Some participants had experienced more than one school. Some participants demonstrated that a change in environment or different interactions with staff helped them to become Acknowledgers, such as

"I'm so grateful to [some teachers] … they have helped me control my temper, show me how to hold it in, and not snap and go sky high like I used to"

Acknowledgers on the other hand differ in their judgement of themselves, their actions, and their responsibilities. Acknowledgers accept that they do not always behave well or work hard, but are positive in their attitude towards the authority of teachers, and recognise that they need to change their inappropriate behaviour, i.e.

"*in lessons I have like mood swings, like one moment I will be really chilled and doing work, and the next moment I just won't want to do it*"

and **"*I'm the class joker* [and] *teachers don't like that*"**

The participant's positionality identifies their concordance with the dominant teacher discourse. They have identified them self as 'other' or problematized. Although this may appear to have resulted in a positive behavioural outcome that may facilitate better learning engagement, there are numerous other explanations for the challenging behaviour. The participant appears to have achieved this 'favourable' position by accepting and internalising questionable justifications for being different than others (Cho, 2009).

Acknowledgers often described flexible approaches by teachers towards them, and that teachers responded to them in a way that was appropriate to their needs. One participant described how

> **"[Mrs Jones] *who does the food tech gives me like an extra warning or says something to calm me down, or has a bit more tolerance*"**

Several 'class jokers' were present within the sample. Participants self-described as such, or their transcripts were peppered with allegories of deliberate humour or attention seeking behaviour in class. Alexander-Passe (2006) notes that 'class clown' is a common compensation mechanism to hide failure by exhibiting a nonchalant attitude. This need comes from poor self-esteem, as well as some of the issues identified already. The devotion to this facade is mitigated by the other options available (Humphrey & Mullins, 2002a; Humphrey, 2003). Psychological defences such as these can develop as a coping mechanism against hopelessness. Self-concept can be highly fragile for individuals with reading difficulties due to the strong societal association with stupidity (Ridsdale, 2005). Students who acknowledge their own behavioural difficulties are best able to make improvements (Payne, 2015). Participants in this study have consistently expressed that it takes support to be able to do that. Feeling listened to and understood was anecdotally supported through dialogue with teachers, such as

> **"*In primary I was recognised* [by the SENCO[6]] *as having dyslexia … she talks to me … she put in ways for the teachers to help … now I have my own laptop … I like that I feel understood by her …*"**

In this context the participant acknowledges their weaknesses, but expresses satisfaction that enough support is in place to overcome that. It seems that one teacher can make the difference between a Blamer and an Acknowledger.

Some Acknowledgers also refer to clear and consistent boundaries, as in

> **"*I got my prefect badge, so that means you have to help members of staff*"**

The transition from primary school to secondary school can be difficult for children with SpLDs (Hughs, Banks & Terras, 2013). Establishing structure and creating boundaries requires tailored individual support. Gilbert (2016) highlights the various issues that occur when individuals are marginalised in schools. A prefect system instils responsibility and a sense of trust in students who may understand themselves as 'special' (Reynolds, 2010). Accommodating and compensating for self-esteem relating issues within the school structure is a beneficial approach (Humphrey, 2003; Gilbert, 2016). Within the present study several participants were positive about their experience of these. Reynolds (2010) however does not agree. They are critical of the imposed social control of the structure, and instead suggest that a more liberal avoidance of authority within peer relations is beneficial. For the prefect themselves – or indeed the student receiving any special treatment or advantage, the literature suggests that the privilege can be ultimately positive. Other examples of special treatment were revealed in the study, including rewards such as exclusive trips and leisure activities. Although these are enjoyed, the literature suggests that being labelled as different in any way has its risks, and therefore it is the attention and support of teachers that is most important in helping Acknowledgers to be both positive, and take responsibility.

[6] Special Educational Needs Coordinator (SENCO)

The crucial aspect within this theme is feeling accepted or having ones needs accepted by teachers. Psychological defence mechanisms may be subtle, and yet are ever present during adolescent identity formation based behaviours. Teachers can offer students the support needed to enable responsible personal growth and promote self-esteem. Where this doesn't occur, students are often aware of injustices that lead to negative attributions, firstly with teachers, but later with the self.

6.1.3 Safe in the School Community

This theme explores emerging connections that describe relationships and social experiences that centre around school and classrooms as part of an individual's community. Links are drawn between social and academic activities, as well the interaction of abstract feelings are precipitous. There are three distinct narratives, including Accepted, Safe, and Bullied, however also contain tributary narratives reflecting the process of hermeneutic consolidation. In this theme, Cluster 1 / Cluster 2 is a predictor of the outcome. The implications of this are discussed.

The Bullied narrative brought together participants who expressed an encompassing isolation or social rejection which the participants described in resulting in bullying from others. The nomenclature of the Bullied narrative is understood in terms of the wider causal scenario, and the constancy of the experience. The primary attitude of feeling excluded in many or all social settings within school precipitates that events, attitudes or behaviours in the classroom affect what happens in the playground. Bullied participants are particularly explicit (compared with the other two narratives), in identifying these links. Typical general experiences of the narrative are

> **"[I have]** ***no friends, hardly any friends …*** **[so]** ***if someone else is trying to fight me, then its self-defence I guess*****"**

Here the participant describes milieu of negative social experiences in a manner that connotes *desperate times call for desperate measures*. This construction is very revealing of the mentality of the participant. Hamarus and Kaikkonen (2008) describe how bullying that is relenting, and that is not curtailed by teachers or peers, is the hardest to endure. A 'careless' state of desperation such as the proceeds the more passive position of fear or avoidance. This is comparable to goal-avoidance in tasks (Sideridis, 2007); however studies suggest that when this pattern culminates from persistent violent bullying, the outcomes can be dramatic. Victims of this type of bullying often enact physical bullying on others, in a paradoxical response to a desperate need to feel belonging (Underwood & Ehrenreich, 2014; Hamarus & Kaikkonen, 2008). Leary, et al. (2003) describe how this mentality, resulting from such patterns of behaviour can sometimes lead to catastrophic outcomes such as school shootings or suicides. In cases where the situation becomes so frantic, a lack of support from the community is typically an issue (Horton, 2011), and victims often have no compensatory source of social capital (Juan & Hemenway, 2017).

Some within the Bullied narrative have an experience of social isolation or bullying that has persisted over time. Schäfer, et al. (2005) explored experiences of bullying during and after the transition from primary to secondary school. They found high levels of stability in role or identification as 'victim'. This strongly indicates that beyond the persistence of environment, the type of support, or individual teachers or peers who may provide support, there are individual traits, behaviours, or attitudes that may foster victimisation. One participant in the study suggests that they were bullied because of a specific trait

> **"*since I was 4 I have been bullied all my life because I was dyslexic*"**

For this participant the Bullied narrative began when school began, and their experience of learning in the classroom is particularly negative. The bullying they describe took place both in and out of the classroom setting, and they implied that teachers had not intervened to help.

Vulnerability and resultant bullying are structurally created in the classroom. Reduced self-confidence disempowers the student to represent themselves in social comparisons between peers. Performance anxiety and depressive states are not limited to particular tasks. In the social classroom, the teacher and the discourse of intellectualism and achievement are dominant, and therefore the teacher has the capacity to reimagine the culture and acceptable standards for students (Dyson, 1999; Graham & Slee, 2008). The critical pedagogue should consider the standards and attitudes that they impart, in order to support positive learning experiences for all (Goodley, 2008).

Several participants highlight that they are isolated or made to look/feel stupid in class as a result of the work that they are set, i.e.

> ***"I get taken the micky out of because I'm not the most clever person, um, taken the micky out of my weight and things like that ... It's just stupid things really, like I'm not the best in maths, and my teacher, he never used to, he wasn't very nice to me and used to be all like that"***

Psychometric analyses with the current sample support this. Participants with multiple SpLDs were most negatively affected in terms of the most prominent indicators of wellbeing for the sample, which correlates with the Bullied narrative (Cluster 2). Furthermore the impact of isolating forms of teaching where participants with SpLDs are taught away from peers had a strongly negative impact on social relationships. The Bullied narrative draws causal links about the generalisation of bullying behaviour based on specific traits or concepts, and places blame with teaching staff. Gini (2006) identifies that because teachers have an authoritative role in schools that students' autonomy is partially dependant on their grace. Therefore the impact of

negative student-teacher relations can limit confidence and can also affect the way students are perceived by their peers (Whitted & Dupper, 2005). One participant describes how they feel reluctant to engage in class

> **"*I'm thinking I don't really want to do all of this, and if he asks me a question then I'm in a way scared to say it, just in case I get it wrong*"**

Participants report that they perceive a concrete link between this isolation, and isolation socially, referring to associated name calling such as

> **"*stupid*"** or ***"loser"***

Elledge, et al. (2016) describe how positive relationships with teachers can have a protective effect for at risk students. The classroom can be managed in a way that avoids isolating or shaming students, and it can also manage peer relationships as a by-product of the structure of activities.

Learning is an engaged social task, and therefore group work and independent work can both contain interactive elements which teach, reinforce, and equalise contribution and engagement in a boundaried and safe manner (Lackaye, et al., 2006; Ingesson, 2007). Students with SpLDs can be particularly vulnerable to victimisation in the classroom, and may not only suffer the consequences after class in terms of bullying, but may have less opportunity to develop the positive social skills that can be imbued through the learning process.

The Bullied narrative was predicted by Cluster 2, which signifies these negative experiences as specific to 2 of the 4 schools in the study. Cluster 2 schools in the classroom observation employed less of the structures or classroom approaches that facilitate the social inclusion of students with SpLDs who could potentially victimised (Lackaye, et al., 2006). This school wide distinction was also highlighted by some participants who commented that bullying was

"*a real problem at the school*"

Where a culture of this negative social dynamic is prominent, there can be multiple outcomes. The excerpt clearly problematizes the frequency and uncontrolled nature of bullying at the school in question, and yet also surreptitiously indicates community awareness of the problem. Whitted and Dupper (2005) describe that bullying has an effect on school communities that is both disrupting, but also potentially reinforcing. Hong and Espelage (2012) use an ecological approach to understanding bullying. They describe various points of interaction between identified groups. Victims of bullying occupy their own 'microsystem', which has its own social-ecological progress and changes within it. The momentum of a larger group of victims may create its own advocacy and change. This may be counter to the directions or efforts of targeted interventions, and therefore is offered as a partial explanation as to why some anti-bullying interventions are so unsuccessful.

Safe participants are characterised as those who praise the structures and support put in place by teachers to help them to fit in socially. Safe students appear to value their safety because they can recount experiences similar to those in the Bullied narrative, but have now moved on from that mind-set and/or experiences. Some Safe students are in transition, whilst others describe recent changes which have had a positive impact. One participant recalls how

"*I had loads of trouble* [at my old school] *but since coming to* [School D] *it's a lot better*"

Another participant describes how their previous experiences lead them to act out violence against other, but that teachers were able to intervene to promote their social inclusion by giving them a meaningful role

"*when I came to this school all of a sudden I improved … I used to hit people, and I ran away from school more than 10 times … then I got my prefect badge, so that means you have to help members of staff*"

The Safe narrative has the same theoretical grounding as the Bullied group, but presents a picture of how successful interventions and support have had positive outcome for participants in the study. Safe participants describe an array of activities or places that ensure their safety like forest schools, and additional tuition and social activities, such as

> **"*At* [an after school club] *… you put down all your feelings and stuff, and … it's where you actually learn more, and get engaged*"**

and

> **"*on the bright side you've got the pastor managers office which is a place where I can go and I sit in that very chair there and speak to* [Mrs Jones] *and say everything I need to say and she won't judge me or make me feel bad, she'll help me*"**

These excerpts reveal that Safe participants still experience ongoing issues, including bullying or social difficulties, and therefore that they still may suffer with reduced wellbeing as a result of their school experiences. The crucial distinction is that community resources are defending these vulnerable participants, and supporting them to positively transition. Despite this, this exemplifies the 'special' or exclusive role of a pastoral officer, and thus exposes the role limitations of classroom teachers. The participant identifies their awareness of accessing additional or special support – therefore self-excluding (Cho, 2009). The education structure marginalises these needs in order to improve efficiency of performative outcomes for teachers.

Safe participants acknowledge their vulnerability or 'difference' but typically reflect positively on it. This personal perspective was expressed as

> **"*I am not the same as normal children, who don't have problems like I do, and it feels different to the other children ... I suppose this makes me happy and sad*"**

Despite the explicit identity reflection of *different* or *other,* the excerpt expresses personal growth. The participant appeared cheerful and positive about their prospects. The participant

actively suppresses their negative feelings, voluntarily, without prompting from the researcher. The participant recalls a more positive perspective, familiar to particular inclusive arguments (i.e. Eide and Eide (2011). Whitehead (2004) notes that the legitimacy of these types of knowledge, which appear to represent an embodied state, are equally susceptible to the diversions of power.

This transition was explored in several participant interviews, and similar repeating concepts and self-descriptions allowed the researcher to compare how far different participants had developed relatively into the Safe narrative. The excerpt below draws on community oriented values, and is slightly more positive than the last.

> **"*I have problems but I don't really mind because I just accept that I am different and that everyone in the world is different*"**

Similarly reductions in bullying were frequently explicitly reported

> **"*I used to get very bullied a lot* [but] *… in year eight it wasn't that bad*"**

The Safe narrative often explores the positive role of nurturing academic and pastoral support, but while this provides a stable basis from which to develop, Safe participants emphasise support from adult mentors, rather than positive social experiences with peers. In a Greek study, self-efficacy in peer relationships was found to negatively affected by disability labels (Andreou, Didaskalou & Vlachou, 2015). Such difficulties can begin early in a child's education, and as such fundamental early social experiences are at risk. In accordance with the self-descriptive language used by some Safe participants, labelling may explain the ongoing peer relationship challenges for participants living the Safe narrative.

Some participants described crossing that barrier, transitioning into the Accepted narrative

> **"I used to get bullied a lot [in my last school] but [this school] has inspired me to be better and more confident, and now I have lots of friends"**

The Accepted narrative describes a positive outlook of life at school. Accepted participants report that they fit in well socially and that they achieve at a level in class that they are satisfied with – however this level is not always described as good, i.e.

"*I do like to write a lot* [but my spellings are] *not good - I'm dyslexic*"

This enabled and positive approach to dyslexia reveals a determination to not be held back (Alexander-Passe, 2015). Positive dyslexic identities have long been the goal of practitioners promoting creative and lateral advantages (Kiziewicz & Biggs, 2007). Positive pathways to success for students have been shown to boost academic self-concept and self-esteem (Bond & Castagnera, 2006; Humphrey, 2004). Burden (2008) questions whether positive identity affirmations can be considered adequate to boost self-esteem, as this would mean falsely believing one was more able than one truly is. Managing perceptions is however a core part of addressing self-perception. Burden suggests that schools with an ethos focussed on agency rather than ability may yield positive outcomes. In specialist schools for students with SpLDs students are often able to hold positive views about themselves and their learning (Good School Guide, 2015; Thomson, 2003). This finding and other comparisons can be made with the present study, where School A (represented by half of Cluster 1) is also a specialist school for students with SpLDs, and Cluster 1 is a predictor of the Accepted narrative.

The Accepted narrative also includes positive experiences of social status is described using phrases like

"*I am quite popular and have lots of friends*"

and

"*in school* [my social life] *is actually quite alright*"

Lopes, Salovey and Straus (2003) describe that positive reflections on social relationships typically have a strong capacity for managing emotions – a predictor for good wellbeing. This relationship is also present in the third factor of the psychometric analyses. Glazzard, 2012 argue that such resilience is a function of a supportive environment. Both excerpts above were situated within part of a discussion about school difficulties relating to SpLDs. Therefore these participants expressed that despite having some difficulties in some areas of school, these were not generalising in a way that was negatively affecting social relationships (Riddick, 2011).

Accepted participants express that they have positive experiences in the classroom and positive relationships with teachers; however these are emphasised or brought to attention far less than within the Bullied and Safe narratives. Baumeister, et al. (2001) describes how bad experiences are generally more readily expressed, and how are they are more likely to surface as a reflection of self or situation. Smith (2004b) supports this, suggesting that there is a cross cultural acquiescence towards negativity bias when discussing certain subjects or in certain settings. Baumeister, et al. (2001) suggest that this innate trait may exist to assist humans in improving things. Positive impetus may be required where failed goal oriented structures can lead to generalising depressive or negative assertions (Szente, 2007; Sideridis, 2007).

The positive outlook in the Accepted narrative can be characterised by an apparent lack of stress about what goes on in school. This type of resilience is not the norm, and where it is found, common narratives of particular support structures are often found (Glazzard, 2012). Accepted participants voice that they are not bothered by not being top of their class, or that the classroom dynamic is comfortable and just generally ok, as stated by

"*I would like to spell better and read better, but* [it doesn't bother me]"

and

> **"*I felt alright, and I don't feel too badly because there is a lot of people in here who cannot get them all right*"**

Glazzard (2012) reveals the importance of early intervention and early individual understanding and identification with having and SpLD, as crucial in supporting resilience. They found that those individuals who were able to speak confidently about their dyslexia or who were resilient against any disadvantageous traits from it, had received support early on. Firth, et al. (2013) examined a school based SpLD resilience programme. The programme explicitly introduced psychotherapeutic tools into the education environment in an inclusive manner so that it did not highlight students with SpLDs. At the conclusion of the semi-longitudinal study, SpLD students had better than forecasted levels of resilience, while typical students were unaffected by forecasted levels. The Cluster 1 prediction for the Accepted narrative supports the different approach taken towards wellbeing.

Terras, Thompson and Minnis (2009) demonstrate that resilience is a function of community. Children with SpLDs show the most resilience when they can access the most sources of positive regard. It is important that teachers and parents alike are able to understand the risks of reduced self-esteem for students with SpLDs, and to assist in providing a nurturing and constructive narrative environment. Although peer relationships are less predictable as a source of understanding about SpLDs, there is strong evidence that inclusive programmes that educate about differences in learning are beneficial for everyone (Ainscow, Booth & Dyson, 2006). One excerpt aptly captured the pivotal point of the Accepted narrative, by saying

> **"*I just do other things instead*"**

Finding acceptance is not a universal experience for any of the participants in the study, but the support of diversity of the community provides acceptance somewhere, and encourages participants to recognise their skills doing something.

Within this theme the potential for negative social and emotional outcomes is apparent. Vulnerable students need understanding, support, and resources of teachers, parents, and peers to working together as a community. SpLD traits have a significant impact on life outside of the classroom, and both evidence from this study and the literature argue that there is cause for monitoring and intervention – as teachers are not always aware how vulnerable some students are. Bullying is a wider problem, but in the context of this study, there is evidence that victimisation can be mitigated by teacher support and programmes to support academic confidence.

6.1.4 My SpLD [does/doesn't] make me Different

This theme represents what is possibly the most repeatedly explored duality in the literature of dyslexia research. Perhaps somewhat different than in other studies where dyslexia is viewed as a distinct aspect of identity (or not) (Burden & Snowling, 2005; Burden, 2008), in this theme narratives focus on whether they believe having SpLDs leads to peers defining one as 'different'. Although perceptions of peer acceptance are an aspect of self-identity or social self-esteem (Hay & Ashman, 2003), the narrative in this theme demonstrates the social impetus or social-reflection as of paramount concern for participants. Participants can be identified as having attitudes on the spectrum, as either Does or Doesn't.

Does participants have a range of experiences and attitudes that makes the category quite incohesive. The impact of dyslexia is described by some as very negative, very damning, and a burden on education and life. One participant expresses concern at their social image regarding writing

> ***"I struggle, really hard because my hand writing isn't very good"***

Another participants says that they feel

> ***"embarrassed"***

Numerous tasks were considered to be performances, in which they were judged by peers

> **"*it's quite like, scary when you have to do something in front of the class and you just pronounce it all wrong and you're speaking at you're looking at the words and you say something completely wrong*"**

The impact on self-esteem and self-identity may be mitigated by a wide number of factors. Self-esteem generalisation may occur more readily for some individuals than others (Burden, 2008). Self-esteem and identity are not singular constructs, but rather in separate domains. Individual vulnerability in different domains may affect whether experiences or perceptions are generalised. Students with SpLDs are vulnerable to negative generalised self-attributions (Ingesson, 2007; Sideridis, 2007), however Burden (2008) reminds us of the heterogeneity within the population of individuals with SpLDs. One participant remarked

> **"*I get angry* [about being dyslexic] … *but I won't* [let myself] *get upset*"**

Griffiths, Norwich and Burden (2004) identify that some teachers employ pedagogic approaches that minimise the use of labels such as dyslexia, because they can lead to negative identity attributions. Contrarily, positive dyslexic identities, such as those promoting creative and lateral skillsets, can have the opposite effect (Rooke, 2015). Identifying as having an SpLD Does define one as different, but it need not be in a bad way. Psychometric data in the present study suggests that students who are taught in less inclusive environments are more likely to see their dyslexia as making them different. This supports the literature connection between teaching approach and SpLD identity attribution.

Identity attribution can reflect the most rewarding interpretation of self. Identity can therefore be disordered, by a milieu of choice that can be ultimately incompatible, but with reinforcement can be temporarily stabilised (McNamara, 2010; Youdell, 2006a; Youdell, 2006b). Therefore choice does not represent subjective desire, but rather orchestration of structural boundaries. Norwich (2013) identifies that identity attributions are socially, rather than individually, constructed, and that there are validity criteria in order to sustain a social transferable identity. The qualities of the identity (such as positivity or negativity) differ between different SpLDs because of the variation of the condition, and the coherence of the impact that they can have on different aspects of life. Data from the present study indicates that participants with dyspraxia are more likely to have reduced self-esteem. Dixon (2003) supports this and suggests that the physical characteristics of dyspraxia impact more adolescent identity forming features, such as appearance, sporting ability, and masculinity.

Several participants discussed a mixed outlook which suggests that their SpLD affects different aspects of their identity construction differently, for example

> **"*I am not the same as normal children, who don't have problems like I do, and it feels different to the other children. I suppose this makes me happy and sad*"**

and

> **"*I am not keen on* [having dyslexia] … *because it's really hard … but it is ok because not everyone is the same … I just accept that I am different*"**

These views reveal that participants have been exposed to support interventions or other external concepts designed to alter self-perception (Lawrence, 2006). Evans (2014b) study with student nurses reveals the pervasive nature of discourses on dyslexia from school, and contextual positivity is linked to proactive engagement with support. Köbberling (1998) argue that adolescents can experience a crisis of identity, and one way this is resolved is through

preferences in school. Capabilities can structure core parts of identity, as can perceived exclusion from activities where there is resultant negative social self-esteem.

Some Does participants embrace the impact of their difference, and discuss how their experience of dyslexia positively informs aspects of their lives. One participant talks about how his practical skills are very important to him, saying

"I really want to be a carpenter when I'm older … like my pap"

Identity formation involves choices, whereby individuals buoy they self-esteem by favourably identifying in relation to their positive attributes (Vignoles, et al., 2006). Interpretation of attributes is based upon community standards, and involves social comparisons. The authoritative nature of the teacher-student relationship means that students can have their identity formation and aspirations limited by teacher attitudes towards SpLDs, pedagogic modalities, and the range of experiences afforded at school (Jodrell, 2010).

Another common view, particularly from School A (a specialist school for students with specific learning difficulties) is the benefits of meeting likeminded but 'different' people, where they note that

"*you get to meet* [lots of] *new friends with dyslexia*"

This environment appears to offer participants opportunities to make beneficial social comparisons. Upward social comparisons would positively support their SpLD identity, while downward social comparisons could provide reassurance and boost self-esteem (Dagnan & Sandhu, 1999). Downward social comparisons in academic work may be an experience students with SpLDs in other schools are not used to (Jodrell, 2010). Positive shared experiences of reading difficulties can have a positive impact on social relationships and improve overall self-

image (Ryan, 1992; Terras, Thompson & Minnis, 2009). The most common positive attitude from Does participants who were positive about their dyslexia was that

> **"*It's alright actually because loads of people … help you out, and you get quite a lot of help*"**

Many participants identified that they did not feel alone as someone with dyslexia, recognising that others around them also had the label, however the usefulness of this varied considerably. Owning the identity of dyslexia has both positive and negative associations, however the divide between these attitudes is largely correlated with the Cluster 1 / Cluster 2 theme – again where Cluster 1 participants purport a more positive outlook. Ho (2004) argue that schools should focus on engaging people with their SpLD identity, but that this needs to be done in conjunction with inclusive education for students, teachers, and others, in order to avoid negative judgements or assumptions about SpLD capabilities.

Doesn't participants are characterised by the expression of the view that having dyslexia doesn't have an impact on their lives. The long term impact of having an SpLD may be predictable by the experience in childhood (Alexander-Passe, 2007; Baker & Ireland, 2007; Weare & Gray, 2003). Contrastingly however, there is no known research that relates the severity or level of experienced difficulties with SpLDs to their psychological or emotional impact. This is likely because of the enormous contributing individual differences within the large population. This indicates that the extent of internalisation of such experiences is based on subjective evaluation of living with an SpLD. Some participants refer to daily goings on at school, with remarks such as

> **"*I didn't know* [I had dyslexia] *until the start of the year*"**

and

> **"[having dyslexia is] *not a lot different*"**

Other participants discuss that they do not see their dyslexia having a negative impact on their future – be that in employment or further education, including

"[I would like a career with] *art and sports*"

and

"*I prefer more of a hands on situation, I want to be in the royal marines*"

These excerpts indicate a strong awareness of personal strengths, away from a traditional or academic route (Kiziewicz & Biggs, 2007; Riddick, 2011; Eide & Eide, 2011). In both these cases participants had family members or other connections to these trades, which may indicate that opportunity or access to resources has had a positive impact on mediating the impact or internalisation of an SpLD identity. Glazzard (2010) identifies the importance of early intervention and diagnosis for SpLDs, as this leads to greater resilience. Personal narratives often include prominent details throughout the lifespan, and therefore early interventions are crucial to reducing negative personal narratives through the formative years of education (Terras, Thompson & Minnis, 2009). Families have their own sense of resilience, which is a dynamic property, varying in terms of resilience of members, and upon different domains (Strnadová, 2006). Several studies emphasise that in many cases SpLDs are result from genetic and hereditary factors (Kaur & Padmanabhan, 2017; Bhandari & Goyal, 2004; Ozernov‐Palchik & Gaab, 2016; Molko, et al., 2003), and therefore how successfully family members have accommodated to their own difficulties, can be significant in how resilient or supportive the family is able to be.

Participants in the Doesn't group expressed a positive attitude about themselves, their abilities, and their career prospects. The Doesn't perspective is fairly uniform, with the typical expression like

"*Well I don't think of it as much different to like, normal really*"

Doesn't participants related this to feeling that socially and educationally they felt able to fit in, without too much concern for being labelled different. Other participants in the Doesn't' narrative had found mixed responses, but were able to identify the cause of negative experiences, and efforted to be allowed to fit in

"What *I don't like is being singled out as like a special child*"

These participants perhaps felt bitter or embarrassed by SpLD labelling or special treatment, but other participants who had this mixed experience took another approach.

"It doesn't really bother me that much because loads of people have it and it's just, it's most common and it doesn't really worry me that much"

Doesn't participants generally profess less emotional investment in their experience of having an SpLD and were less expansive in their related responses than Does participants. Doesn't participants are otherwise most identifiable in the way in which they ask for help. This may be interpreted as a determined resilience which drives academic and personal success; however it may also be understood as concealing shame about having an SpLD (Armstrong & Humphrey, 2008). In both cases, the purpose of the narrative of whether having an SpLD Does or Doesn't make one different serves to bolster self-esteem.

6.1.5 Right Teaching, Right Behaviour …

This theme explores how participants perceive the relationship between teaching approaches and the behaviour of themselves and others in the class. This theme combines a number of proto themes which described specific experiences, particularly including the experience of not being listened to in the classroom. The hermeneutic process revealed consistent relationships that

were either praise or criticism of teaching staff in the class, but that also acknowledged that the teacher had a whole class to manage. Participants describe general classroom management, teacher focus and attention, work load, different types of activities, and interventions for support.

The essential understanding of 'give and take' between teachers and students that was expressed by participants lead to naming the two emerging narratives Harmonized and Disrupted. Within each narrative, there are also subordinate narratives that explore varying outcomes, including orderliness, academic improvement, poor engagement, and feeling isolated. The Harmonized narrative and the Disrupted narrative are predictors of Cluster 1 / Cluster 2, however there is also exact correlation[7] with some sub narratives as well.

The Harmonized narrative describes positive relationships between teaching approaches and good classroom behaviour. Students with SpLDs who do not receive the right support can experience what Edwards (1995) call the 'scars of dyslexia'. Edwards suggests that these can be long lasting and pervasive, however she also offers hope in suggesting that good inclusive teaching can began to heal some of the issues, particularly those surface issues such as behaviour. Burden and Burdett (2005) provide a motivational analysis of student experiences and classroom behaviour. They suggest that bad behaviour in the classroom is motivated directly by students will to make their reasoned discomfort known, and also mitigated by their reduced ability to control their behaviour due to challenges of the environment. Their study paints a very positive picture of a SpLD specialist school which is able to meet learning support needs in the classroom, and produce positive behaviour. Many other studies suggest that behaviour management is more complicated than this.

[7] In this context 'exact correlation' means that all content and hermeneutic analyses that pertain to the creation of the narrative or sub narrative originate exclusively from either respective Cluster 1 / Cluster 2 schools only

Winter (2006) notes that newly qualified and trainee teachers feel least prepared in delivering behaviour management. Griffiths and Stuart (2013) highlight the extent of the problems that some students experience, where they struggle to respond positively to typical inclusive interventions. They suggest that core literacy difficulties may prevail and be disruptive, but also that there is cause to develop progressively more inclusive approaches to teaching – with a focus on managing difficulties with attention. In the present study, classroom observations strongly indicated that the Harmonized narrative came from classrooms where more inclusive practices had been observed (for the classification description see Chapter 4). Mautone, DuPaul and Jitendra (2005) highlights alternative technological approaches to achieving positive behaviour in the classroom, and demonstrates how these are an inclusive tool. Understanding the engagement needs of students is essential.

This theme involves both students' personal experiences, and observations of the behaviour of others. Furlong (1991) suggests that social constructions of normal behaviour may not resonate with those individuals who do not identify with the structures of education, and therefore the supposed rationality of the educational environment may go un-critiqued by the majority of students. Students often attribute poor behaviour to perceived fairness of teacher actions (Miller, Ferguson & Byrne, 2000). Both structural and individual level arguments could provide answers. Hofer (2007) suggests that conflicts arise between the goals of students and teachers throughout the process of the lesson, or indeed the process of education more broadly. Below participant excerpts describe orderliness in a manner concordant with Hofer's theory.

The orderliness sub narrative emerged defined in two distinct forms by participants. Firstly order is an environment in which individuals feel best able to learn, noted by participants as

> ***"kind of strict but … really nice as well ... like if we're doing a subject we'd usually get to watch a bit of a video clip, he puts on music just to calm us down"***

and

> ***"It's just really relaxing, the windows open, fresh air, and he doesn't do hard work but he doesn't do easy work"***

Hofer (2007) describes these accommodations as supporting student self-regulation, whilst also enhancing or realigning the focus of interest. Other studies highlight the benefits of variety in classroom teaching (Willms, Friesen & Milton, 2009). Hofer, however suggests that this can be understood structurally as manipulating certain motivations. Academic motivations may be subverted by social motivations, but teachers can support students for whom academic motivations are less rewarding. Participants, somewhat hesitantly, acknowledged their own shortcomings in achieving the standards of good behaviour that they understood they were expected to live up to. This acknowledgement supported their favouring or accepting of behavioural interventions from teachers.

This attitude was predominantly from Cluster 1 participants. This indicates a greater success from subtle interventions, based on a model of reducing resistance/conflict (Barth, et al., 2004; Fraser, 2012). Subtle interventions such as background music have been shown to be effective in reducing behavioural disruption (Hallam, Price & Katsarou, 2002). This inclusive approach acknowledges that there may be individuals in the class with undiagnosed difficulties, and support those with ADHD or similar difficulties to concentrate. Observations in the present study revealed that most classrooms across all schools employed a good level of variety in tasks to keep students engaged.

Beyond meeting social, or competing non-academic needs, participants described orderliness in the classroom as resulting from disciplinary steps. Strictness and fear of punishment may be associated with improved behaviour. Whether this is the same as the 'on-task' behaviour described by Hofer (2007) is unclear. Justifications for discipline must consider the outcomes.

Discipline can be used to silence disruption, and marginalise access for students (Davies & Laws, 2011). This may favour the majority of the class over a minority, but may also serve to limit means of expression. Teachers have a responsibility to explore the unmet needs that may result in unwanted behaviours, rather than to prioritise quelling them (Jull, 2008).

McManus (2002) identifies that male and female students may have different expressions of 'bad behaviour' or 'off-task' behaviour, and that therefore teachers may not understand good behaviour when they see it either. Within the present study perceptions of the *good* behaviour of other students in class were generally limited to peaceful and confirming passivity – i.e. the absence of disruption, but little else. Horton (2011) describes an adolescent social order disguised from the comprehension of teachers, in which behaviours in the classroom, including off-task behaviours can go unnoticed. Punch (2002b) supports the notion that for both research and practice with children it is necessary to look beyond evident behaviour or responses, and understand motivation.

Where participants evaluated teacher's ability to manage behaviour in the whole class, there was a Cluster 1 / Cluster 2 divide. Participants who identified orderliness and teachers who had good control over the class were from Cluster 1. Cluster 2 participants implied that disorderliness was common in classrooms, and that it was not welcomed by them. Boulton (2008) explores the continuum between bullying and classroom disruptions and finds a high level of incidence. Boulton suggests that a high level of disruptive in-class behaviour is of an aggressive nature, which is also supported by McManus (2002). Split, et al. (2016) identify that despite the nature of classroom disruptions, mediated solutions and 'praise over punishment' approaches are more successful at improving behaviour. Split, et al. argue that such approaches are more effective as a strategic approach to behaviour management, because it supports developing relationships and because reprimands can lower self-esteem, which in turn can lead worsening behaviour.

Secondly the Harmonized narrative is characterised as the teacher's ability to encourage positive behaviour from the participant. This idea is common to several themes; however a notable element of it does not (as in the other themes) describe systems of punishment and reward, but rather focusses on engagement with classroom work. One participant remarked that

> **"*they know that I am dyslexic, so they help me quite a lot, and tell me not to worry too much about the tests*"**

Similarly another participant commented that

> **"[Mr Smith] … [gets you engaged],** ***he's sort of lively and he want's everyone to be included*****".**

In the present study 'dynamic teaching' is extrapolated from descriptions of the activities done in lessons, and activities that promoted engagement. Participants described tasks that were creative, active, project based, and interactive as predominant in leading to them feeling engaged. This is supported in the observation data, where correlation with Cluster 1 school observations were rated more frequently as in higher inclusion definitions for celebrating creativity and work structure. One participant commented that

> **"*I'm doing the history project* [for which] *I'm going to a giant art piece on a giant piece of canvas*"**

Other participants expressed that

> **"*in math … we can make* [3D models] *and things like that and figure out dimensions, and make them*"**

Beyond praise for practical or project oriented work, it was often multimodal work that was the most appealing to participants (Kiziewicz & Biggs, 2007). Comparisons were also made of multiple different positive approaches

> **"*I find that in other lessons like science, English and math, they teach you to hold your hands all the way through whereas the drama teacher will let you be creative about your choices*"**

. For several participants independence was key to being Harmonized. Popular phrases expressing amenable working included

> **"do my own thing"** or **"work independently"**

Griffiths and Stuart (2013) suggest that for some students more independent work may result in less challenging behaviour. Consistent with other ideas within the orderliness narrative, a learning approach that holds individual attention is key. Friend and Bursuck (2002) identify independent learning options as an inclusive adaptation to suit students with different learning styles or pace of working.

The academic improvement sub narrative does not cover all aspects of improvement, such as those covered in other themes, but instead refers to explicit examples where participants describe it as a beneficial outcome from teaching style. Many participants describe pride in their grades which they attribute to specific teachers, such as

> ***"in English I went from a 4C to a 5C and my mum was like: your spelling has gone up, and your grade has gone up so* – [my teacher has] *actually helped me in overall terms …* [and] *I'm really happy because I love English and I love writing"***

Several participants describe the effect that learning support or a specific intervention has had on their academic progress. One participant states that

> **"*having access to a laptop is the best … I can learn now*"**

Other participants praise individual teaching support staff in the context of their improvement, and many more are disappointed to lose support (see above). Of the participants who expressed

the most positive of transformational stories, they frequently cited a strong relationship with a teaching assistant or teacher.

Feedback in education is about recognising and understanding progress, and reflecting with a view to making further developments. This theme explores concepts concerning accessible learning, feeling understood, and having a voice. Harmonized participants have highlighted the merits of systems of feedback that engage participation, that involve reflection and discussion, and that reward progress. Participants overwhelmingly praised interventions for which they could see and understand their progress and learning in. In schools in the study that utilise specific short term inclusive interventions, participants expressed positive regard for their structure and efficacy. One participant talking about a spelling pattern intervention commented that

> **"*I went from a 4C to a 5C and my mum was like, that's your spelling cos look at it, your spelling has gone up, and your grade has gone up so it's actually helped me in overall terms*"**

This participant was so pleased with the intervention's success that she had proudly informed her family. Other participants commented that these kinds of interventions had increased their confidence, and that reflection was emotionally beneficial for them

> **"*time to go over just that thing … was really helpful*"**

Feedback systems and interventions that were encountered in the study were not only for literacy and mathematics, but also for behaviour and general skills. Participants highlighted the importance of praise to reinforce change, including privileges such as sweets and drinks to feedback to the participant that they were making good progress. Praise and recognition through reward was also identified in many other forms. For one participant having her work publically displayed was very significant for her as she felt she had made excellent progress and this

symbolised that. In School A it was practice to ceremonially reward improvements in behaviour and academia in special bi-annual assemblies where progress and personal development were publically acknowledged in front of peers. Several participants discussed their pride in receiving medals described that it held a meaningful social status between their friends. This structural tool demonstrates the efficacy of the authority that teachers have to manipulate behavioural outcomes (Hargreaves, Hester & Mellor, 2012). These goal structures alter individual motivations by instigating a socially based reward scheme.

Several participants expressed how seeing a change or improvement in their grade was important to them. It appeared to be a discourse of self-evaluation that was effective and comprehendible. One student described the history of his recent years of schooling by saying

> **"*I did not get on well with teachers* [in my first year] … *but now I should do because* [my grades have improved]"**

This participant directly relates their academic performance to their behaviour and relationship with teachers. Several other participants also used grade analogies to explain to the researcher how they had progressed. One key tool utilised by several schools in the study that was well-liked by participants were accelerated reading programmes. Participants described how upon completion of a book they could test themselves to see how good their knowledge and understanding of the text was by being given a score. One participant noted that

> **"*we're doing this thing, it's called accelerated reading. It's like, you've got to read a book and then you quiz on it, then you've got to see what you get. If you get 100% you get this sticker to stick on the board*"**

Other participants described how it was a useful way of checking they actually understood what they were reading. Again, students respond positively with conformist behaviour to a highly structured approach, for which they receive innate reward. Overall participants welcomed all

opportunities to get feedback and praised situations in which they could identify how well they were getting on.

Continuing on from the sub narrative of academic improvement, the Disrupted narrative primarily explores participants' experiences where they perceive the teaching approach to have resulted in reduced or stagnated academic progress or classroom attainment for themselves or others.

While some participants expressed concern that teaching that wasn't dynamic or inclusive led to disruption in the classroom, other students – a minority in comparison – expressed that dynamic teaching was not always helpful to their learning. Key criticisms included

> **"*I put my hand up for help and stuff, and they just don't come and help me, and they just go over to other people*"**

and

> **"*Most of the teachers ignore me because I don't do enough stuff, because I can't keep up because I am a slow writer, and I really don't understand stuff*"**

Jordan, Schwartz and McGhie-Richmond (2009) highlight that this is a common challenge of limited resources in inclusive classrooms. Teachers sometimes focus efforts on only some students because they either have to attend to students who need more help or are behaving poorly, or contrarily focus on supporting students who are the most engaged in the classwork. Teachers describe this decision as unfortunate, but sometimes necessary, in order to make the progress in lessons that they are required to, in order to teach a curriculum. Teachers often suggest that more teaching assistants would be helpful in overcoming this problem (Moran & Abbott, 2002; Devecchi, et al., 2012).

Giangreco and Doyle (2007) suggest however that the use of teaching assistants is often exclusionary and segregates academically less able students. In the present study there were no observed examples of co-teaching. Co-teaching involves employing more than one teacher in the classroom, where both teach equitably across the class. Studies exploring the application of co-teaching often utilise other inclusive teaching approaches, with a focus on tasks that are group or project oriented, or that rely less on a transmissive approach (Scruggs, Mastropieri & McDuffie, 2007).

Student perspectives of feeling ignored in an inclusive class suggest that it can often lead to boredom, disengagement, and disruptive behaviour. This downward spiral can be understood in terms of Bandura's (1994) model of self-efficacy and motivation. Students with additional learning support needs such as SpLDs actually need a more peaceful or conducive environment to work in than many others, in order to achieve (Barth, et al., 2004). This is because they are prone to difficulties with concentration, and because they may have to work additionally hard where tasks are in learning modalities that cause them challenges (Rose & Howley, 2006; Vaughn & Klingner, 1998; Carbone, 2001). In the present study this problem was evident, with numerous participants describing being distracting by others.

> **"*people are messing about I can't concentrate*"**
>
> **"[people are] *shouting out in class*"**

and

> **"*it's hard to … work with all the noise*"**

These experiences were not found in all the schools in the study. There were no such experiences in School A, which utilises smaller class sizes, and an inclusive teaching approach designed to support students with SpLDs. Cluster 2 school students most frequently expressed

disappointment with their experiences with this, and were the most perturbed by it. Participants from School C described various environments in which they felt insignificant or lost among the masses. They perceived a chaotic layer of interference blocking their needs being heard.

Johnson (2004) describes class size as an inherent barrier to individual resource access. They suggest that compensation must be made for larger class sizes, either through increased individual access to other resources, or additional individualised support. In the schools in the present study, there was no observed evidence that this resource balance was being accommodated for the curricula (although many participants from Cluster 2 schools were receiving individual or small group support for literacy and numeracy). Johnson also argues that where 'typical' students have the capacity to vary their work rate or effort to compensate for more challenging / less supported times, students with SpLD may already be taxed to their limit by mainstream classroom teaching. Therefore it is essential for teachers to monitor and support this further accumulated need of learners with SpLDs. A study from French secondary schools suggests that increased class sizes may not drive down measures of specific measurable outcomes such as literacy, but do contribute to reduced individual engagement (Ecalle, Magnan & Gibert, 2006). Class size should be understood as a variable effect on an individual and their learning needs. Larger classes represent reduced efficacy and control of teachers. Ecological models which recognise the interplay between finite resources and capabilities are therefore suitable to understand optimising inclusive classrooms (Doyle, 2006; Miller & Cunningham, 2011).

A different complaint from participants was that they were not being challenged enough in class. This view was often introduced by participants who were describing either how well teachers knew them, or how individually suited their work was to them.

"I'd actually like to be pushed a bit harder in science"

and

"I don't really like English because it is a bit easy"

In many cases, participants expressing this view suggested that they were in the wrong class or being set the wrong level of work as part of group. A particular proto theme emerged within this of 'good / bad' comparative experiences between different classes or between terms/teacher changes/year changes. Participants from Cluster 1 schools appeared to have a defined perception of their own ability level, and often described a combination of concepts about themselves and their teachers. Hermeneutic analyses were inherently too personalised to describe inclusive or otherwise practices, but the correlation with observations supports the idea that Cluster 1 participants described more inclusive practices than Cluster 2 participants. Norwich (2013) explains how selecting the appropriate level of academic challenge presents difficulties for both students and teachers alike. Meaningful interaction between student and teacher negotiates the level of work being set, and therefore reduced individual attention limits this – resulting in bulk treatment. Variability in inclusive practices is described by some participants as problematic. One participant explains that

"I did go into one class, and they did provide quite a bit of help and then when we moved up to year eight you haven't got any help at all ... I don't think it made any sense"

Participants expressed that they didn't understand their support, and didn't find it was helpful – reducing capacity to work.

"I don't even know if I do learning support, that's the problem"

Pedder and McIntyre (2006) highlight the importance of student consultation in terms of social capital. The study indicates that students who do not feel adequately listened to do not benefit from the social capital of the teacher-student relationship. As such social capital is a basis for mutual trust, disorderly behaviour is more likely to ensue. Bland and Sleightholme (2012) reveal that students with teaching assistants also most highly regard flexibility and individually tailored

support above all other qualities. In this large scale study, students rated teaching assistants' interpersonal skills above their qualification or expertise. The study suggests this is because students have a strong understanding of their need to be motivated or listened to.

In the current study some participants expressed not understanding the teaching practices seemingly going on around them. This is counter-intuitive because inclusive practices *should* involve engagement, monitoring and feedback. Some participants displayed a good understanding of their needs, but had apparently never experienced them being met.

"*there is nothing the teacher could do* [to fix the classroom problems]"

and

"*I have* [a literacy intervention] *but I am not learning anything*"

These participants specifically indicated their lack of faith in the teaching methods or teachers. These negative reflections on teaching methodology were exclusive to Cluster 2 school participants. One participant succinctly describes this position as

"*I just want* [the teachers] *to help me make progress*"

Inclusion should prioritise engagement (Norwich, 2013). The present study shows students can understand the quality of support they receive, and understand practices that are inclusive. *They* describe plurality and individuality of support is desirable, within an inclusive classroom paradigm. This distinction is important in exploring the research question, and differences in this area are delineated by the Cluster 1 / Cluster 2 divide. This is strong support that students understand how their educational experiences affect their wellbeing. Byers, et al. (2008) support this notion, and suggest that schools should make teachers more available to students in order

to better meet in combination educational and wellbeing needs. The validity of a teaching practice focussed approach to wellbeing and inclusion is supported by Florian (2008).

Griffiths and Stuart (2013) suggest that unfortunately some students may not be able to work within an inclusive classroom, and are better suited to individual tuition. The sub narrative of isolated follows on from the notion of poor engagement. It was a prominent proto theme (despite the relative minority of the sample to which it applied) because it was a powerful voice in the material, and highlighted strong feelings that could not be ignored. Participants discussed a myriad of experiences in which they felt that staff did not listen to or address their needs, that they felt staff treated them unfairly in a way perceived to relate to disability and learning needs, or that they felt that teachers at the school did not understand their behaviour. In all cases in this theme participants described repeated experiences that form a pattern that leaves the participant feeling isolated and helpless. Although some experiences and feelings are inter-related, there are key ways in which participants felt isolated.

The most common concern was that teachers do not seem to know about or understand the struggles of being dyslexic. One participant says

"I don't think they understand … some teachers don't understand that I'm dyslexic!"

This feeling can result in poor behaviour, and means that students are not benefiting from the social capital of the teacher-student relationship. Some participants in the present study appeared to be extremely distressed regarding this, and implied that this was endemic to their other struggles.

Numerous studies identify that SpLDs are not understood enough by teachers (Thompson, 2010; Bell, 2013). The choice of personal identifier as 'dyslexic' may be an important identity construction for these participants, strengthening their self-esteem in excusing their difficulties

with academic work (Grimes, 2009; Burden & Snowling, et al., 2005). If teachers do not appear to acknowledge or respond to this construction, this may cause participants to doubt themselves. Armstrong and Humphrey (2008) argue that these experiences can contribute to a failure for students to accommodate to their SpLD, which leads to reduced life chances, or the need for psychological support and counselling.

Conferred SpLD identities can de-problematize behaviours or feelings, as well ease relationships upon which academic and behavioural expectations may hinge (Griffiths, Norwich & Burden, 2004).

> **"*they did not know that I was dyslexic, and did not understand my anger problems*"**

Furthermore behaviour and academic outcomes may improve, just by being acknowledged by authority figures (Griffiths, Norwich & Burden, 2004). Where this does not occur, participants perceived personal prejudice against them from particular staff. One participant talking about his health and learning needs described that

> **"*I don't really like* [Mrs Jones] *that much because she never believes the stuff I say*"**

A participant with similar concerns about his health and academic work expressed that

> **"*most of the teachers ignore me because I don't do enough stuff, because I can't keep up because I am a slow writer, and I really don't understand stuff*"**

Where students feel punished for something outside their control, studies demonstrate that this can be particularly demoralising (Alexander-Passe, 2006). For individuals with SpLDs punishment can often be humiliating because they may feel that the infraction was out of their control (Edmonds, 2012). Some students report bullying from teachers who repeatedly chastise them over the same infractions. Many students with dyspraxia experience this in physical education lessons, as well as the classroom, and this can lead to educational and social disengagement.

Punishment is likely to be ineffective in terms of deterring poor behaviour or reinforcing other desired outcomes (Sullivan et al., 2014).

Participants also expressed concern that they did not understand the reason teachers became frustrated or angry with them. One participant felt that

> **"*teachers get angry at you for no reason .... I have been here for four years – I am going to leave* [this school]"**

Participants found it too demoralising not being able to meet the behaviour requirements. These attitudes are characteristic of learnt helplessness, where individuals accept failure and disengage because they feel they can do no right (Alexander-Passe, 2007). Participants found the nature of teachers critique to be unjust, and saying that

> ***"sir always shouts at me because I'm letting my friend down"***

Traditional teaching authority is routed in a history of punishment and reform towards more effective punishments, rather than reducing the inhumanity towards disruptive students (Deacon, 2006). Foucault highlights that the state and the dominant discourse has a vested interest in maintaining standards which punish attitudes or behaviours which do not conform. The state power relies on mechanisms and actors that although independent, accord to state discourse – such as teachers. The modern school employs a combination of punishment, and social coercion, but the aims remain structurally the same. Foucault further suggests that teachers should be open to criticism and disobedience from their students because disobedience is essential for individuals to creatively construct themselves (Butler, 2009). In the UK this is evident in standards of embodied discipline, such as restrictions on dyed hair, or racial/culturally specific styles (Andrews & Palmer, 2016). Some teachers are ill-equipped to differentiate between individual expression, and behaviours that have problematic consequences for students.

Another participant describe their repeated experience that

"[the teachers] *threaten to bully me or inform my family*".

Although these concerns are personal opinions, they nonetheless represent *actual* barriers to learning for the students concerned. The student perspective is not being included in the pedagogical response (Jull, 2008). Students are being devalued because of their behaviour, and therefore they increasingly receive less teacher resources focussed on them.

This theme has revealed the relationship between teaching and behaviour. The harmonized narrative incorporates several similar types of experience of conducive teaching that makes students feel valued and included, and this leads to better classroom behaviour. The disrupted narrative describes varying degrees of negative experiences that fail to address individual needs, often isolating students, or perturbing engagement. Classroom behaviour is conceptualised as a bi-product of how other needs are attended to, rather than as the result of self-control or deviant attitudes. Firstly, deviant behaviour is something classified by authority figures, and therefore naturally does not show up in student interviews. Secondly the prescribed authoritative nature of the teacher-student relationship invocates structural sociological models of deviance, which prioritise top-down interpretations over the probity of individual motivation.

6.1.6 Overview

Student interview themes explore several aspects of experience, described by the sample. Themes reveal the relationship between aspects of the educational environment, and the impact on their wellbeing and identity construction. Theme divisions are highly concordant with psychometric wellbeing data for the same sample. This supports the credibility of the theme constructs, and reveals that student participants are capable of describing this relationship. This

is further cross-examined and validated by supporting evidence from observation data. The findings from student data suggest a marked difference in the student experience at school, and their resultant wellbeing, between Cluster 1 and Cluster 2 schools. Particular teaching practices are identified by participants as important to providing them the inclusive support they value. Similarly participants note that attitudes and understanding from teachers is associated with the type of teaching they receive.

Although student interviews have demonstrated the undeniable articulation of clear perspectives of interest relating to the relationship between inclusion and wellbeing, the definitions and comprehension of inclusive practice is not defined by the distinct student social world discourse, and therefore must be evaluated in the dominant teacher discourse. In the following section, teacher interview themes explore similar relationships from teacher perspectives, integrating some evidence from observations and student psychometrics. The main focus however is in interpreting teacher language and narrative construction of their practices, and inclusion attitudes and norms at their school. Teacher interviews were longer, and contained reference to theoretical models, and therefore there is a greater emphasis in the critique of models.

6.2 Teacher Interview Themes

Table 6.2 below outlines the themes explored in this section. Within each theme, proto themes are discussed, for which an outline of the composite is summarised in Appendix 8.5.22.

	Summary
Psychosocial Wellbeing at Risk	Understanding engagement parallels concern for wellbeing. Teachers need to understand psychosocial wellbeing. Some teachers are ignorant of the causation of classroom disruption, blaming students. Theoretical knowledge needs to be improved
Support Teachers to Support SpLDs	Structural power in education is an obstacle to inclusion. Some teachers are demotivated to be inclusive because of targets. Teachers need to be empowered with resources and training. SENCOs need more power to influence policy and practice.
Can Inclusion Work?	School environments affect teachers' perceptions on inclusion. Many teachers do not understand the importance of the difference between differentiation and inclusion. Structural and individual values sometimes oppose inclusion on unethical utilitarian grounds.
Cluster 1 / Cluster 2	Represents pairs of schools – A&D, B&C

Table 6.2 Teacher Themes

6.2.1 Cluster 1 / Cluster 2

This theme has the same representative role as for the student interviews. Integration between student and teacher interviews was not intentional. The Cluster 1 / Cluster 2 divide emerges entirely from the teacher interview data, where the rigor of the hermeneutic process ensures the authenticity of the construct. A full description of Cluster 1 / Cluster 2 can be found in the student interview theme section. The noted difference is that sample size. The entire teacher sample only consists of 7 participants, which is not evenly distributed among schools. The Cluster 1 / Cluster 2 is therefore not as strongly supportable as with student interviews, however it has

been highlighted because, despite the weak representation of Cluster 2 schools, there remains a stark divide in ideas and concepts which are the thrust of polar division within many teacher themes. Cluster 2 is treated as limited due to the absence of perceptions and opinions expressed by Cluster 1.

6.2.2 Psychosocial Wellbeing at Risk

In this theme participants are represented on two ends of a spectrum, with regards their perceptions, described actions, and understanding of theory and interventions where students with SpLDs are at risk of poor psychosocial wellbeing. Psychosocial wellbeing is umbrella term that reflects the dynamic relationship between psychological and social processes. Psychological processes are internal – thoughts and emotions, and self-perception; social processes comprise social capital, community, and interaction in/with environments (Frosh, 2003; Humphrey, et al. 2013). Psychosocial wellbeing theories were the best fit for the emerging perspective from participants, however other theories are discussed. This theme represents an array of attitudes connecting both student wellbeing and teacher's responsibility for it, which tend towards two narrative groups identified as either Concerned or Disregarding.

Participants in the Concerned narrative are primarily distinguished by the belief that children with SpLDs are more vulnerable than typical children. Participants describe their observed experiences, their theoretical understanding of the causation, and the way in which they deliver the support they see as appropriate to compensate. An example of this process is

> ***"their self-esteem has taken a hammering ... they're low in confidence … they've often found learning difficult, which is frustrating for them … they've had the Mickey taken out of them and they feel unsettled about asking for help. The thing we do here before anything else is we build up their confidence and get the children wanting to come to school; when they want to come to school, they're then in a better position to learn"***

This excerpt explores key concepts from the literature. Primarily the link to globalised self-esteem issues from their education experience is reinforced. This is widely supported in the literature (Riddick, et al., 1999; Alexander-Passe, 2006; Terras, Thompson & Minnis, 2009), where the implications for self-concept and mental health are prominent. This *whole* narrative construction is common in the Concerned narrative. This excerpt describes a transitional relationship, where students experience one type of education or social outcome, and then are 'better' supported – and the implication is that this changes. Zionts (2005) regard the transition narrative for students with SpLDs to be more fluid, due the maintenance of attachment relationships and a learning curve of adapting. The support mechanisms that may be altered or put in place are unlikely to impact self-esteem in a unilateral fashion. The participant acknowledges the necessity of a gradual approach, and the importance reducing truancy is primary to re-engagement. This is view strongly supported by Alexander-Passe (2006) who argued that truancy is a result of both the struggle against failure in the classroom, and the social issues that can result from reduced self-esteem.

This excerpt is highly representative of the Concerned position – which is characterised by the effort to comprehend the broader picture for students. Bullying or teasing is described as directly resulting from educational performance. Many students experience bullying specific to their weak academic performance in class (Woods & Wolke, 2004). Inclusive practices are often divided on how to avoid this. Problematic social comparisons can be devastating to self-esteem, and yet contrarily, competition can be motivating and inclusive if progress is the emphasis. One participant states that

> **"[I try]** ***to be very positive. I think we do 80-90% positive feedback and very much less negative feedback because they have so much of that already and they're so aware of their failings and probably have a very negative self-image*****"**

This approach again attempts to bolster self-esteem directly through teaching methods. Personal and emotional learning is a vital part of school (Lackaye, et al., 2006; Ingesson, 2007). One participant describes this in terms of reducing harmful social comparisons

> **"*labelling is something that I would be keen to try and avoid ... I try not to single anyone out* [as special]"**

One participant describes their active efforts to manage social comparisons throughout the school by making additional study support for students with SpLDs (and others) appealing to everyone

> **"*it was really important that* [smart/cool students] *should be seen coming to the* [learning base] *and the rude names stopped*"**

This classically demonstrates comprehension not only of social comparison theory, but also that students occupy their own social worlds, which must be acknowledged and understood in order to provide conducive support structures (Hamarus & Kaikkonen, 2008; Beran, 2006).

Participants in the Concerned narrative also identify the need to deliver beyond this, as a form of inclusive teaching, in which self-esteem is the most commonly cited area for concern. Participants describe teaching approaches that are both inclusive and exclusive as having merit, as well as activities with the explicit purpose of developing self-esteem and confidence

> **"[doing] *activities which reinforce their good characteristics, you could do personal and social activities where everybody writes one nice thing about each member of the class and all of a sudden you've got fifteen positive things about yourself*"**

Participants who revealed deeper theoretical understanding of causations of low self-esteem were more likely to describe integrative or subtle approaches to challenging it. This distinction contributed to an important proto theme which explored teacher confidence with inclusive practice and terminology. Newly qualified teachers and trainee teachers are often unprepared

for tackling the wellbeing issues of their students, and that there is an impractical divide between the pastoral and the academic (Hartley, 2010; Clark, 2008). Classroom observations in the present study captured examples of explicit inclusive values being taught, or the use of inclusive literature. This is commendable because student knowledge and engagement in the development of inclusive schools is valuable (Morcom & MacCallum, 2012). This observation does not reflect a divide, as such content would not make up a representative view of any education environment.

The literature indicates a significant long term effect of having an SpLD on wellbeing (Ingesson, 2007; Sideridis, 2007). Some participants recognise the significance of this in terms of self-esteem and the accumulation of negative language or concepts surrounding the issue. Burden (2008) argues that low esteem effects does impact many students with SpLDs, but that counter narratives are vital to understanding why they prevail.

> **“negative self-esteem obviously and negative self-talk. 'I'm rubbish, I never do that right'”**

The participant equivalates this classroom behaviour of disinclination in academic work with low academic self-esteem. Concerned participants believe it is. Elliott and Gibbs (2008) contrarily suggest that students labelled with SpLDs can become disinclined towards work because of the construct of SpLD identities, and inevitable reduced personal expectation. Testing attitudes in research relies heavily upon the assumption of participant honesty. There is a high correlation of low academic self-esteem in the literature, but this cannot alone be seen as proof of the relationship because no known study concurrently describes accordant teacher experiences of these classroom responses. Riddick (2000) cautions against mistrusting student perspectives, and argues that language and judgements about motivation are the more likely realm of error, where distinctions need to be made for context of expressions. Gwernan-Jones and Burden (2010)

support this by suggesting that more experienced teachers employ better teaching methods and can overcome behavioural or disruptive effects. Therefore the views that dominate the Concerned narrative should be heeded.

The effects of negative self-esteem are further explained as

> **"if they don't have their self-esteem boosted and their self-confidence boosted then quite a number do actually descend into depression. So it's vital to be very positive"**

The process from disengagement and disinclination to work, through to depressive and resistant thinking is well established (Sideridis, 2007; Alexander-Passe, 2007). Ingesson (2007) reveals that students often feel damaging anxiety and depression that can last long into adulthood. The effects of internalising negative attributions to self-identity can have this effect. Concerned participants express an understanding of this, describing likely trajectories or damning outcomes from earlier lack of support. One participant expressed concern of

> **"*vulnerability in terms of life choices or life limiting factors*"**

Kirk and Reid (2009) demonstrate a troubling correlation with adult deviant behaviour / criminality for individuals with dyslexia. This is supported by Boetsch, Green and Pennington (1996) who highlight the historically reduced economic and career outcomes of individuals with dyslexia. Unsupportive education experiences create a harmful template for social relationships and relationships to authority (Brooks, 2012; Lund, Stevenson & Hugdahl, 2009). This is concordant with Farrington (2005) who describe deviant / criminal behaviour as a learnt behaviour that can begin in childhood. Some participants reflecting the Concerned narrative directly link self-esteem issues to poor behaviour

> ***"kids come in to secondary school with very low self-esteem and with behaviour problems; massive behaviour issues, kids that have ... been excluded a lot in primary school. When I've unravelled it, they've been dyslexic basically, and they've been so***

***angry and frustrated and thought themselves to be stupid*"**

Concerned participants do not attribute blame for behavioural issues, and instead recount the efforts they make to help students feel more positively. They express a strong sense of the risks to students, and draw on experience to provide transformative support. Behavioural issues are conceptualised as the result of poor psychosocial wellbeing, which is multifaceted and integrated with the holistic context of school life. Some Concerned participants describe their understanding of social and emotional learning theories, and explore beyond self-esteem. One participant infers that a self-actualising model (Burleson, 2005; Zimmerman, 1990) best describes their approach to change

"wellbeing is the idea that you can take control of your circumstances and act in a way that you want to change those circumstances rather than just feeling that everything passes you by and you have no option in life"

Similarly the importance of progressive targets or goals in also recognised

"if you keep getting things wrong, it doesn't matter how nice someone is to you about it, you are going to develop some sort of complex about it"

Participants appear knowledgeable and operative in delivering these interventions and learning structures. A solution focussed impetus in which the participants acknowledge their responsibility for helping their students to understand and achieve is central. One participant describes breaking down tasks with students, in order to overcome mental barriers to engagement

"It's understanding 'OK so I'm here, I need to do this, this and this, how am I going to get there? How am I going to access that?'"

Reid (2016) suggests that this approach is essential because the barriers to learning for individuals with SpLDs can hamper the development of critical reasoning skills. Tasks involving

reading commonly present problems for students with dyslexia; however it is possible to facilitate progress and stimulate reading engagement by connecting structured multisensory tasks with reading. Kiziewicz and Biggs (2007) suggest that this demonstrates the need for students to better understand their own broader capabilities, in order to better cope with their SpLD. One participants suggests that

> **"[wellbeing is]** ***how you feel about yourself, how you feel about your position in the world, whether you're comfortable with what you're being asked to do, whether you can cope with it*****"**

Another participant similarly highlights the importance of self-knowledge in determining outcomes

> **"*well-being is a lot more than the physical or educational, it's to do with their ability to perceive themselves*"**

Teachers can explore students' creative, lateral, practical, physical, and mental skillsets through multisensory teaching, and through tasks which empower individual outcomes, rather than standardised solutions (Kirikkaya & Vurkaya, 2011; Madeja, Dorn & Sabol, 2004). In the present study non-written tasks (or tasks that could be achieved without extensive writing) were the most common. Handouts were also observed to be used in a manner that facilitated individual pacing and approach to tasks. In many cases however this was not observed to be managed inclusively, where Cluster 2 schools particularly singled out some task modalities for students with SpLDs. No observed examples of teaching in the present study demonstrated teacher commitment to supporting students in self-knowledge about their skillsets – although this cannot be considered representative due to the limited number of observations. One participant suggests that

> **"*it's all about trying things out, getting things wrong, that self-experiment, that self-journey to get to an end goal*"**

Individuals with the same SpLD label can present very differently, or struggle with different modalities of learning (Beacham & Alty, 2006; Alty, Al-Sharrah & Beacham, 2006). Furthermore classroom structures such as individual and group approaches can also have different outcomes (Wise, Ring & Olson, 2000; Hatcher, et al., 2009). The impact on wellbeing from this increased self-knowledge can be understood as mutually converging journeys toward self-efficacy, and increasing self-esteem (Kennedy, 2006).

Participants expressed concern that along the route to growth and improvement, that nurturing was essential. The Concerned narrative describes idealised environments that optimise flourishing by making students feel safe

> **"*making sure that every student in the class is comfortable in their working practices, knows that what they are doing, is secure in what they're doing and knows how to access for themselves to get to the next stage*"**

and

> **"*they come in and they know it's a safe environment or somewhere that they know exactly what my expectations are*"**

These participants infer responsibility for creating a nurturing space, and imply that bounds and expectations are individually tailored in order to promote progression. Classic theorists such as Maslow demonstrated that safety and security provides a positive environment for growth (Otway & Carnelley, 2013). Ridsdale (2005) suggest that students with SpLDs are more at risk than peers from negative consequences of the educational environment, and therefore that safety is more necessary for them to achieve than typical peers because of their reduced self-esteem or anxiety about being highlighted as different (Kagan, 2001; Mortimore & Dupree, 2008).

Within the Concerned narrative positive attitudes and compassion from teachers is part of inclusion because

"*a lot of learning can only take place if people are feeling positive*"

Where teachers' attitudes are identified as central to a theme, there is little additional data from observations and student psychometrics that can be integrated. This limits this theme because it is seldom supported by other evidence within the current study.

Due to the unbalanced sample, although the Concerned narrative was derived almost entirely from Cluster 1 schools, it is not precise enough to claim this as representative. The Disregarding narrative however is made up exclusively of participant interviews from Cluster 2 schools, and explores perspectives not presented by participants from Cluster 1. The Disregarding narrative is in the minority of the sample. It is characterised by the attitude that students with SpLDs do not generally experience issues with wellbeing or are not more vulnerable, and that issues with vulnerability cannot be addressed in class or are not the responsibility of the teacher.

Equivalating in-class expressions of disinclination with work are perceived within the Concerned narrative to reflect low academic self-esteem.

Participants in the Disregarding category predominantly express the view that students with SpLDs are not particularly vulnerable, although educational attainment and the nature of students SpLDs are not denied, where

"*if it's just SpLD, if it's just dyslexia for example, then no, they're not vulnerable*"

and

"*they're not vulnerable because a class teacher would see a vulnerable child as one which overtly show withdrawn behaviour or have had some kind of child protection issue, these sort of things*"

These views challenge the wisdom of the literature by offering a marginalised view of vulnerability. Kärnä, Voeten, Poskiparta & Salmivalli (2010) describe vulnerability to bullying as a

significant form of vulnerability; however this view is dismissed within the Disregarding narrative. These excerpts imply the need for a high level of biographical or other information on students, in order to know or understand their vulnerabilities. Subsequently such an approach may miss the presentation of important new indications of vulnerability. These ascribed definitions of vulnerability limit teachers' capacity to provide support because they rely on the inaccurate (or at least non-encompassing) labels from 'experts', rather than their own critical exploration (Cannella, 2000).

Within the Disregarding narrative, some particular types of vulnerability are identified, but there is an apparent lack of knowledge about them. One participant expressed that their students' vulnerabilities were limited to their academic capabilities

> **"*they definitely have a vulnerability … if you ask them to read*"**

This view overlooks considerable research which indicates the social ramifications are the most significant aspect for students (Ingesson, 2007; Sideridis, 2007; Alexander-Passe, 2006). The impact on psychosocial wellbeing was either denied or absent from discussion. Students with SpLDs are described as being no different than typical peers, where

> **"*I'm normally very impressed, they normally seem to just take it in their stride ... most students seem to think it's perfectly normal*"**

and

> **"*they're in no way different than students without SpLD*"**

The inclusion needs of many groups of students have historically been overlooked. Tippett, Wolke and Platt (2013) identify a lack of teacher awareness of in-class racism, while Deemer (2004) demonstrates that student comprehension of teaching material is sometimes not in line with teachers' observational perspectives. Issues of political correctness likely obfuscate the true

nature of the impact of SpLDs for teachers, and in other contexts. Reducing labelling or problematizing individuals or SpLDs in general, may lead to teachers focussing on measurable learning objectives (rather than wellbeing or individual need) as a performance indicator (MacBeath, et al., 2006). Göransson and Nilholm (2014) highlight the real risk of inclusive practice diminishing under the pressure of other deliverables in the classroom. One participant remarked that

"*we're so used to speaking about targets, learning objectives*"

This is further exemplified by one participants perspective that

"*Mainly* [inclusion is] *just making sure they can access the learning*"

The second excerpt indicates that the term 'access' had boundaries to it, and that they had limited responsibilities because of this. Conceptualising inclusion presents challenges in many studies (Hodkinson, 2006). Humphrey (2003) highlights the pivotal role of teachers support, and that poor support can diminish the attention paid to serious issues. One participant described that

"[students being] *physically abused - say by something being thrown at them*"

was normal in their class. They acknowledged that this disproportionally affected students with SpLDs or other learning support needs, but none-the-less suggested the behaviour was unrelated to vulnerability or bullying. A pragmatic overview of the situation which appeared to play down the negativity was stated as

"[only] *a few students in my tutor group have felt victimised and bullied*"

Both students and teachers sometimes normalize and accept bullying as the culture of school (Dupper, 2013; Davies, 2011). Some Disregarding participants identify that issues exist in their

classrooms or schools, but do not demonstrate any relevant knowledge or theories, nor interventions that could lead to better support. Some participants directly acknowledge their lack of knowledge and resources where wellbeing is concerned – as exemplified by

> **"[wellbeing is]** ***an area I'm not particularly confident with in terms of reflecting on it because it's not something I do if I'm totally honest*****"**

Similarly some Disregarding participants displayed a similar lack of knowledge about inclusion

> **"*I'm a class teacher and I should know what* [inclusion] *policies there are, but..* [I don't]"**

The literature suggests that stretched teacher training and resources can often lead to this kind of negative outcome (Sosu, Mtika & Colucci-Gray, 2010; Jung, 2007). Some schools suffer from under funding and failing to attract high quality teachers, however in the present study, school culture may offer greater insights. Positive school culture requires coherent consistent approaches that foster strong engagement between teachers and students (McGrath & Noble, 2010; Day, et al, 2008; Huber & Muijs, 2010). Disregarding participants offer evidence that this may be the case where

> **"*if I had more time I could prepare more resources, more individualised resources. I feel that in the actual sessions sometimes the focus can be so heavily on behaviour management*****"**

This perspective frames the decisions and responsibilities of the teacher within a limited mandate. The performative nature of teaching orchestrates behaviours and facilitates external structures that minimise individual interpretation and even ethical choice in the classroom (Ball, 2003). Efficiency and affordability can be scrutinised ahead of professional judgements of best practice. This is extremely evident in relation to responding to poor student behaviour. Behavioural difficulties are still often used to justify partial or full exclusion from mainstream learning. Despite decades of research that clearly indicates the causality of many behavioural

problems could be managed with resources similar to those provided to other SEN students, the boundaries of the teacher, the time and resources, and the nature of engagement, are too challenging for the performative educator (Jull, 2008). Behavioural difficulties are not economically viable because the limited remit of the teacher does not include provision or training for the disruptive student. Not being able to attend to challenging needs such as these, withers the critical pedagogue, and therefore identity construction steps-in to protect self-esteem, and accepts the reframing of the role of the teacher to performative standards (Ball, 2003).

Disregarding participants are recognisable by the absence of discussion on key issues concerning the psychosocial wellbeing of students with SpLDs. The literature suggests that this lack of ability to provide theoretically sound support can lead to negative outcomes for wellbeing and academia (Hodkinson, 2006; Mintz, 2007). Psychosocial Wellbeing at Risk is an important theme that underpins the relationship between theory and practice in delivering support for students with SpLDs.

6.2.3 Support Teachers to Support SpLDs

This theme explores narratives related to teachers' experiences of having adequate resources, training, and support from their school, in delivering inclusive education. The researcher recognises that the term 'inclusion' has orchestrated the nature of comparisons and attitudes expressed, because this was the language used by the researcher within the semi-structured interview. Therefore some narratives included allude to inclusion as a pinnacle positive outcome, but this is better understood in terms of each participant's own view of 'good' teaching. Narratives sit on a continuum, which includes perspectives on themselves, and their colleagues.

Participants also describe challenges they face in their role, and identify how motivational components interact with practical limitations.

The most common view expressed was that teachers are not adequately trained to fully support the needs of students with SpLDs. Most participants acknowledged that the issue did not relate to individual teacher efforts, but rather to a combination of resource limitations that affected many. One participant expressed that

> **"*We are a training school … yet they don't set foot in a special needs classroom which I just think is absolutely shocking*"**

This example is highly critical of both teacher education and those schools who facilitate it. The participant expressed shame that as a SENCO they did not have more input on how their school helped furnish trainee teachers with the practical experience to begin their careers. There are few critical studies on the SEND experience trainee teachers receive in the UK. Hodkinson (2009) suggests that it is insufficiently attended to, due to the modern and inclusive nature of the curriculum. Universities train thousands of teachers every year in the UK to deliver teaching methods based on theory. In some parts of Europe university education and teaching practice have suffered simultaneously due to funding cuts, and co-occurant broadening of the discipline and attention for SEND (Lúcio & Ferreira, 2016). In the UK there is evidence that inclusive education has been negatively affected by austerity (Veck, 2014).

The role training schools have in defining priority experiences for trainees is uncertain. One participant described their personal decision to choose to focus during their training on SEND

> **"[dyslexia was] *one of the reasons I went in to teaching in the first place*"**

because

> **"*I had such a terrible time at school because of my dyslexia*"**

Sadly the majority of other participants in the study did not share similar experiences of themselves or colleagues. Trainee or newly qualified teachers in the UK are often unwilling or prefer not to take on SEND responsibilities (Avramidis & Norwich, 2002; Gibb, et al., 2007). Some misgivings were expressed where SENCOs felt that teacher attitudes were a barrier to preparedness to support students with SpLD, exemplified as

> ***"on two occasions I've had mainstream teachers refuse to do cover for me because they don't think it's a job for a mainstream teacher"***

Lyotard (1984) provides a grim perspective of performatist education as limiting the quality and depth of education. The grand narrative of inclusive education can lose meaning when it is applied too broadly. Ball (2003) suggests that teachers can become essentially preformist because their structural roles can deny them of key decision making, and leave them enacting specific scripts (Besley & Peters, 2007). Teacher work load is also a considerable limit on teachers' ability to serve alternate or plural agendas.

The researcher's own experience lecturing on teaching training degrees has helped them to recognise the deficit some trainees feel when approaching SEND. Often trainees appear to comprehend the reason for their responsibility to SEND students. In the present study some participants appeared to accept disregarding the needs of marginalised students, due to resource or other perceived constraints. Inclusion is described in terms of resources by participants from many schools. Resource scarcity is described as

> **"*In the reality, that takes hours and hours of preparation, and it can't always happen to the level I'd have it if I knew I had more time*"**

and

> **"[it is]** ***not always possible … to get someone to type it out so that it is in a good dyslexic font*****"**

This excerpt clearly acknowledges their understanding of the benefit of this provision to learners, but describes the problem as unavoidable. One participant suggests that delivering a range of formats would require

> **"*a company giving the same material in different formats*"**

Participants are clear that they require additional structural support, in order to achieve the inclusion that they feel they have been trained to deliver (Avramidis & Norwich, 2002; Scruggs, Mastropieri & McDuffie, 2007). This statement also reflects the wider acknowledgement that the skillset of the postmodern teacher may not include the preparation of curriculum materials. Although this does not answer the question of how the solution could be provided, it is telling about the attitude of the participant. Their goal is not to provide the bespoke or designed best teaching that they are 'qualified' to deliver. They perceive their role as delivering content or a curriculum externally designed and controlled. Similarly another participant notes that

> **"*good practice … if you match these to a lesson pro-former on what an OFSTED outstanding lesson should be*"**

This participant expresses that their model of good practice is externally provided, and that it is unrealistic, and therefore they do not attempt to meet it. Their teaching is uncritical and below external standards, by design. Another participant describes being well trained, but not having the time or resources to deliver on their training

> **"*going back to my training … it was a massive part … of the focus; in the reality, that takes hours and hours of preparation, and it can't always happen to that level*"**

Such limitations can have problematic outcomes. For students with SpLDs, the impact of less-than-inclusive teaching can have a serious impact on attainment (MacKay, 2004). Foucault also reminds us that teachers betray their practice by failing to account for the ethical aspect of all their engagements with their students (Peters, 2003). Foucault is deliberate in highlighting the

numerous moral pitfalls that educators can fall into, and how the marginalised learner must have parity in the classroom, in order for the teacher to live up to their obligations and achieve quality (Clarke, 2009b; Olssen, 2016). This is supported by Forlin (2012) and Florian and Linklater (2010) who describe inclusive teaching as 'good' teaching. Improved teaching for all students, will involve understanding that everyone has different strengths and weaknesses in terms of learning style, and therefore most effective teaching is achieved by facilitating multimodal approaches.

Classical interpretations, such as Derrida note that teachers need to better understand the relationship between operational terms and principles, and their output (Haddad, 2014). Positivist dichotomies and labelling can prevent teachers from engaging in critical pedagogy, and put students at risk (Hodge, 2016; Fitch, 2002). Contrastingly, in the present study, and the literature (Jung, 2007), teachers are often identified as lacking knowledge in key areas relating to SpLD provision and theory. One participant, talking about colleagues commented that

> **"*they need to understand slightly more the mechanics of dyslexia, dyspraxia dyscalculia, ADHD, ADD, OCD, all the different conditions that we apply inclusion to*"**

Staff training is described as lacking from both teacher training at degree level, and on an ongoing basis. Several participants expressed that during either their own, or their colleagues' university training that there was insufficient emphasis on SpLDs and SEN in general – expressed by

> **"*I haven't had much training in ADHD and that's now the area where I'm struggling*"**

Another participant notes that

> **"*It's taught, it's skimmed over during teacher training, it's not really given the importance in need*"**

The issue was perceived to come from both a lack of teaching of theory, and from a lack of hands on practical experience, explained as

> **"*learning on the job isn't always the best thing. Sometimes an understanding of the mechanisms behind learning*"**

One SENCO who was interviewed was very critical of trainee teachers 'tick-box' approach to SEND. They suggest that at trainee stage many are not interested in SEND, and simply do what they must to get on with what they presumably see as 'real teaching'.

> **"[trainee teachers] *come and ask me stuff and they'll fill in a little tick list, but they're not working with the b******* kids"***

This suggests that even during training, the realms of structuralism have been set by the tasks and ordination. Many participants explained their experiences in structural terms. Common structural elements include school administrators, the university where they trained, and institutionally accepted practices among colleagues. Authority and structure are endemic in educational institutions because of the student-teacher relationship (Buzzelli, C & Johnston, 2001; Apple, 2013; Peters, 2015). Accountability to senior staff, administrators, department budgets, governors, local authorities, and OFSTED inspectors all represent other obvious forms of hierarchy (Hudson, 2007).

Mulcahy and Irwin (2008) note that hierarchy in education is an obstacle to pedagogic progression and reform because of the inherent disconnection between aspects of control over the task of delivery. This effective *division of labour* disempowers teachers by making decisions for them, and forcing them to work within narrow confines. Reducing autonomy can reduce motivation and engagement (Skinner & Belmont, 1993; Reeve, 2009).

Motivation to support students with varying needs draws mixed feelings in the discussion of balancing teaching focus and resources

> **"*you inherently spend a lot of time supporting the C-D students because they are the ones struggling more and not spending time on the A-A* students who are quiet*"**

Similarly another participant commented that

> **"*sometimes differentiation can have a negative effect to the rest of the group*"**

This classic utilitarian approach, in maximising positive outcomes for the many can result in marginalisation and oppression (Thomas, 1993; Jarman, 2008). The lack of criticality and attention to the risks to students' wellbeing (Ingesson, 2007) is troubling. The consequences of differentiation are considered by many participants in the study. Although differentiation may be contrary to inclusion (Blamires, 1999), they are often discussed as operationally similar. Some participants who identified more negative consequences of this support suggest that due to resource constraints their students with SpLDs should take responsibility for their own 'inclusion', as teachers cannot sometimes know students' learning support needs, and do not have time to facilitate them

> **"*they know they need a coloured overlay, at secondary school I feel that perhaps they should be taking more responsibility than they are*"**

This participant described inclusive approaches as a combination of tools to enable these students to 'keep up' with others, as the teacher goes about their normal teaching. This fails to acknowledge the social and motivational conflict discussed previously in this study, between identification as having learning support needs. Teachers who do not recognise the impact of this are not critically comprehending the nature of their classroom.

Another participant was critical of the workload and responsibilities imparted by inclusion philosophy, on a similar basis

> **"*to be an inclusive practitioner, which is what this state you know, you have to demonstrate certain skills. Clear differentiation, the chunking of work, I could go on,***

***there's a whole lot of it. I mean all the way down to the language of use*"**

Their tone was dismissive of practical approaches to inclusion, particularly highlighting the orchestration of terms of language from theorists. This participant appears to be engaged in critically exploring their own practice – because they offer challenges to hierarchically imposed standards, and explicitly highlight the lack of value and meaning in performative teaching (Mulcahy, 2011). This practitioner led knowledge and experience is an essential component to understanding the delivery of inclusive practices (Black-Hawkins & Florian, 2012).

Some misgivings were expressed where SENCOs felt that teacher attitudes were a barrier to preparedness to support students with SpLD, exemplified as

"on two occasions I've had mainstream teachers refuse to do cover for me because they don't think it's a job for a mainstream teacher"

This experience suggests that colleagues feel unwilling or unable to teach students with additional needs. Fuchs (2010) suggests that inclusion can only function where teachers are enabled to remove labels and barriers. A lack of training or expertise may lead some teachers to feel underprepared for this work. However this participant was vociferous in their opinion that teachers saw supporting students with additional needs as 'below them'. Diagnostic labels can devalue individuals, and differentiation structurally enforces reduced expectations which proliferate into society (Fitch, 2002). Schools may be seen to have roles in maintaining a status quo through instilling discipline and order, and achieving standardisation (Hargreaves, 2005).

The inclusion agenda has long been established in research and practice; however this is not sufficiently connected to policy making (Allan, 2003). Participants in the present study repeatedly describe structural limitations to their exploration of inclusion pedagogy. Furthermore other participants describe themselves and their colleagues as having a marginalised or limited role in supporting and teaching students with SpLDs or other learning support needs. Several

participants note that this is an institutionally constructed behaviour. Role identification has left teaching as a performative act (Mulcahy, 2011). Some teachers associate their responsibility in terms of accountability to the hierarchy, and to performance indicators such as test scores, rather than achieving 'good' teaching (Titone, 2005).

Despite this, in the current study, there were also several good examples of engaged and committed teachers with a positive understanding about the needs of their students, and an expressed desire to fulfil those needs

> **"*because we've got the* [county] *dyslexia specialist here, I think a lot of the staff are very supportive towards SpLD kids*"**

Some teachers draw on their own experiences to transform teaching culture at their school

> **"*when I first started here it was thought of as 'oh another dyslexic student', a bit of a cop out, that it wasn't a real disability as such …. but I've done quite a lot of work because I suffered from it significantly myself*"**

Glazzard and Dale (2013) describe how teachers with personal experience of SpLDs often desire to offer more help and support to their students. These teachers can often better recognise the need for individually tailored support, through their empathy and understanding of the relevant behavioural outcomes. Representation of marginalised individuals in challenging social norms and political discourses is common (Briscoe, 2005; Glazzard & Dale, 2013; Burns & Bell, 2011). Where traditional education is managed by a hierarchy that promotes an agenda of intellectualism (Olssen, 2016), critical pedagogy must involve integrating individuals who have suffered under this approach, into the profession (Anderson, 2006).Other approaches including participatory research also occupy part of this, by changing the modes of constructing dominant discourses (Punch, 2002a).

The importance of individual and adaptive teaching approaches is recognised by other participants, who are

> **"*continuously making it relevant and finding a framework that will engage them*"**

School A is a private fee paying school. Perspectives from School A differed significantly from others when it came to staff training. At School A *all* teachers hold a SENCO qualification. They describe their level of training and knowledge as

> **"*we've got knowledge about dyslexia and lots of programmes we can use and bits of kit that we've adapted*"**

This is structurally supported by other engaged practitioners

> **"*a number of our support assistants have been through level two BDA dyslexia training*"**

Within this smaller school setting, teachers have access to detailed information about students, in order to critically design teaching and interventions to suit them

> **"*it enables me to see how children function and how they work and how they process to a much greater degree*"**

Teachers are engaged in constant reflection with their students, in order to deliver outcomes that support many aspects of education and wellbeing. Several participants described this school as nurturing.

Participants from School A work to achieve this through the wider range of resources that they have available

> **"[we are] *adapting what* [we do] *all the time ... so if that doesn't work*, [we] *go away and make another worksheet or exercise that they'll be able to access*"**

Other participants have expressed that they do not have time to do this. In other schools class teachers express that they do not have the time, and therefore SENCOs often try to set the

standard for resources. Many participants described how resource management was structured based upon

"a personal profile that … shows … strengths, weaknesses, areas of concern"

Provision based solely on descriptive or diagnostic perspectives can be extremely limiting for students. The persistence of labels can have broad reaching negative effects for students. In the UK students with diagnosed learning support needs are allocated additional funding. Wink (2005) reminds us that critical pedagogic perspectives must consider the social, cultural, political, and economic dimensions. In the current economic climate in the UK, the impact of austerity must be considered relevant to the ongoing developing nature of provisions within the state education sector.

Lehane (2017) notes differences in the government SEND Codes of Practice. They argue that under austerity, SEND policies have been altered to create profitable outcomes within school economics. This may deter from the fundamental purpose of SEND Codes of Practice, and replace research driven policy with economically grounded regulations. Inclusive teaching in schools is already known to be limited by budgetary constraints (Crawford & Vignoles, 2010). Funding formulae currently are based on per-pupil costs, and therefore do not easily facilitate spending funding on whole-class inclusive interventions. There is considerable research required into the effects of whole-class inclusion in mainstream education, which cannot happen without additional resources. Critical pedagogy will remain somewhat limited until approaches to funding education change. Critical pedagogy could be a positive approach to tackling the structural problems identified by many participants. Critical reflection must involve an appraisal of different levels of the hierarchy, and an understanding of the mechanisms and limitations of the structure – in order to recognise where one fits within it, and how one should undertake their role (Luke &

Gore, 2014; Katz, 2014). Social, cultural, political, and economic perspectives must synthesise with engaged practical knowledge for critical pedagogies to occur.

Where participants describe their university training, we must examine whether this training gave them the skills to engage in critical pedagogy (Gabel, 2002; Florian & Black-Hawkins, 2010). It can be difficult for teachers to see outside of their prescribed roles and responsibilities, especially when workloads are reportedly so high (Hilton, 2017; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2017). One aspect of engaged critical pedagogy involves teachers own responsibility for their professional development (Alexander, Anderson & Gallegos, 2004). Participants in the present study have identified limitations within their own practice, but very few have criticised the social, political or economic limitations of the way they work. They have preferred to refer either to practical examples, or to adhere and conform to the nature of the structure, and use structural arguments to explain deficiencies in output or performance.

. Participants with SENCO qualifications referred predominantly to their perception of colleagues. Despite frequent negativity, they also highlighted examples of successful improvement with ongoing staff training

> **"*There has been a lot of training in the past, notes in the bulletin every week from the SpLD centre with tips*"**

and

> **"*I've gone through and done quite a lot of training, modelling and basically making the staff become dyslexic and then getting them to function and do processes that they expect students to do, like giving them various impairments*"**

SENCOs have tried to use internal training to supplement teacher professional development in SEND. Despite these efforts, most SENCO trained participants acknowledged that many of their

colleagues still lacked adequate training or knowledge on SpLDs. This is supported by numerous other studies (Mintz, 2007; Wilkins & Nietfeld, 2004).

One particularly surprising viewpoint from 'specialists' (SENCO trained staff working in School A), who appeared dedicated and knowledgeable, was that supporting teachers to support students was sometimes still best managed in a non-inclusive manner. One participant promotes marginalising learners with SpLDs into specialist schools. This view was supported by others from this school and others, who highlighted the benefits of specialist services.

> **"*Every town/city in the country should at least have one* [School A] *which is state funded*"**

Although they call for better expertise to exist in the state sector, they appeared to base their comprehension of the situation on structural premises. Participants from School A expressed positive views of the state sector, perceiving improvements in the support for students with SpLDs, justified by the number of students with SpLDs who attend state mainstream state schools

> **"*I think that mainstream schools are getting an awful lot better at catering for high functioning dyslexics*"**

This is symptomatic of a divided power, taken away from teachers, leaving them limited in their remit to both teach, and to think (Mulcahy & Irwin, 2008). Education is performative, target driven, with much of the quality of critical thinking now gone. Even where teachers strive to provide an inclusive and nurturing space, their motivations do not extend beyond achieving what is structurally prescribed (Scruggs, Mastropieri & McDuffie, 2007; Ball, 2003; Ball, 2010). This is illustrated in participant attitudes towards change and varying role responsibilities. Essentially, accessing and implementing resources is described as an issue where

> **"*a student should have had a coloured overlay, and it wasn't until a bit in to the lesson that I recognised that they hadn't got it because I was making sure that the class was settled, that everybody was doing their work, giving the instructions, working with individuals, and I just missed that*"**

This is supported by other participants who express that

> **"*sometimes the focus can be so heavily on behaviour management or making sure that the class are doing what they should be doing*"**

These participants suggest that the role of managing behaviour is not compatible with their responsibility to deliver inclusive education. Florian and Linklater (2010) suggest that teachers need to better understand the relationship between teaching styles and behaviour, as part of inclusive practice. Policy changes are described as a further burden to this process where

> **"*I'm a little bit struggling to understand how things have changed recently*"**

As previously explored structural approaches to education can limit practitioners. These participants suggest that in some areas the hierarchy or system through to which they refer is sometimes disunited and incohesive. Policy direction or communication is in adequate, or standards change without teachers being made aware. Teachers need specialist knowledge and skills in order to engage with their students to support the various realms that EHCPs cover (Gore, 2016). Braun, Maguire and Ball (2010) describe the variation in policy dissemination in different case studies. They found that cultures of practice in different schools meant that policies were interpreted wildly differently. Policy interpretation may be a privileged position, where flexibility in practice is mediated by the performative output of tests and scores. The quality of relationship between schools and education authorities (or other funding mechanisms under academies and free schools), and the relationship between teachers and schools, is dependent upon measurement. Measurements that are unlikely to represent student perspectives or experiences,

and that approach all measurement from essentially privileged adult world perspectives and expectations (Ingvarson & Rowe, 2008; Punch, 2002a).

> ***"it was that every child matters, then suddenly it's every child matters doesn't matter anymore"***

Where teachers do not feel in control of their own basic moral/ethical compass in the classroom, the performatist role may result in apathetic disregard. Where teachers do not feel supported in supporting students with SpLDs, teachers may even blame students for their lack of engagement in class – in complete contravention of the wisdom of the literature (McCaughtry & Rovegno, 2003; Romi & Roache, 2012)

> ***"some students that I work with shy away from group work … I don't think it's necessarily* [helpful]"**

Several theories of the relationship between structure and output have been discussed in the exploration of student participant interview themes. Many challenging perspectives are raised where teachers bring to bear critical commentary on their own status, and this theme encompasses many of these. There is conflict defining the postmodern teacher (Hargreaves, 1994). Unsurprisingly they occupy a plural space, with responsibilities to fulfil a great number of duties or roles. Teacher participants have explicitly described in this study that they do not however feel prepared or resourced to undertake such roles. With greater role identification in multiple areas – be those that of educator, role model, pastoral guide, community liaison, or simply policing terrorism, it appears from the view of teachers in this study, that engaging in discursive and practical domains of disability/inclusive values presents a challenge (Beck & Young, 2005). Inclusion can still often sit outside of an intellectualism discourse through which schools and teachers rely (Rassool & Morley, 2000). Teachers may fail to identify the opportunities for uptake of information and therefore marginalise some learners, because of structural

approaches towards to purpose of education – namely scores or grades. This limits the pedagogic capability of practitioners.

6.2.4 Can Inclusion Work?

This theme combines several narratives that express philosophical conclusions, based on the practical experiences of teacher participants. In contrary to the previous theme, where resources were underscored as divisive in describing many views, these narratives consider theoretical possibilities and ambitious targets. Furthermore participants share their day to work in achieving individualised support and teaching delivery. Contrastingly, other participants describe limitations to inclusion, and preference for the differentiation of students.

This theme has a Cluster 1 / Cluster 2 divide between five distinct narratives. The first narrative Including describes perspectives and experiences of participants engaging in, and looking towards positive inclusion for their students, which values them as individuals, and describes approaches towards this. The second narrative Sensitive focusses on the need for nurturing environments for inclusion to be realised, and suggests progress towards this. These first two narratives correlate with Cluster 1 schools. The remaining three narratives correlate with Cluster 2 schools. The third narrative Disparaging involves participants who recognise the individualised provisions required for inclusion, but who therefore do not see it as credible. The fourth narrative Parochial explores the view that differentiation is adequate to achieve inclusion, and the fourth narrative Averse, describes the perspective that differentiating and inclusion are not practical or desirable in mainstream classrooms, and that students are better served by exclusionary approaches.

Participants in the Including narrative share a range of beliefs that they put into practice in a way that the SpLD literature could describe as progressive (Edwards, 2010; Thomas, Walker & Webb, 2006). Central to this is the value placed on knowing one's students' needs individually and not basing support provisions on disability labels such as dyslexia. One participant describes

> **"*try to get inside students heads, and I will really agonise … and I won't be happy until I've got inside his head because I need to know how that child is thinking so I can address the issues*"**

This participant expresses determination to push beyond the role of classroom teacher. As a SENCO, this participant approaches their responsibility to their students in a holistic manner, aiming to understand a student centred perspective (Black, 2007). Many mechanisms of support and perspectives on teaching often fail to address student perspectives (Ingvarson & Rowe, 2008). This participant expresses that they need to understand how the student feels. This is positive because wellbeing is often not engaged with within the structures of school (Morris, 2015), and students with SpLDs can experience negatively affected wellbeing (Ingesson, 2007).

For other participants the focus is

> **"*knowing what would be useful for them, what will help them to progress*"**

and is achieved by

> **"*creating tasks where children can achieve so they feel that they have achieved*"**

Strategies to prevent goal-avoidant behaviour are essential to supporting students with SpLDs to remain on-task with work, remain motivated, and to reduce the risk of the classroom environment affecting self-esteem (Alexander-Passe, 2006, Sideridis, 2007). Furthermore scaffolding tools are freely used within the classroom. Participants describe these tools as available to all, so that no one is singled out. Participants in this narrative appear positive about

the general use of these tools, and their integration does not phase their teaching outcomes or measurements. These include

> **"*a variety* [of scaffolding tools] *… we are just introducing 'write on' as a word processing, sort of with predictive text type of thing*"**

and similarly

> **"*they're allowed electronic readers*"**

This approach challenges the rigid empiricism of intellectualism within teaching (Schlessinger, 2013). Deleuze promotes this transcendent approach which does not champion lexical modality above other forms of achievement (Olsson, 2009). They suggest that limiting learning and assessment modalities lead to unfair deterministic limitations on a developing child's ontology. Maximising modalities and encouraging achievement through broadening such means allows the student to explore other epistemologies, and experiment with their own innate capacities. Participants acknowledge their recognition of the importance of this approach, towards student productivity and wellbeing describing

> **"*making sure that every student in the class is comfortable in their working practices*"**

The motivation towards positive outcomes was evident, but different teachers had varied approaches to how this was achieved. One participant put a strong emphasis on multimodal instruction and formatting of documents

> **"*we also adapted worksheets and the materials that we used so that all children could be included*"**

While another participant described further steps they could go to in order to adapt the whole teaching environment

> **"l*ighting is as important as the base format in a room, especially about fresh lighting, you need low level lighting*"**

Both approaches are supported in the literature (Kelly & Phillips, 2016; Kamala, 2014; Tod & Soan, 2013). The participant noted that beyond the commonly attribute visual stress symptoms of dyslexia, lighting and other environmental changes could have a positive effect on mood and behaviour (Green & Reid, 2016; Randall, 2013; Oasis Academy Brislington, 2015).

The Including narrative also reveals a mindfulness of the harm that can be caused by students feeling singled out; one participant recounts that

> **"*I don't have the 'I know you've got this issue' chat*"**

This approach is supported in the literature, where avoiding labelling students with learning support needs reduces the risk of limiting their academic self-perception, and not stunt exploration of their learning preferences (Rhodes, 2015). Participants were critical of students being taken out of classes to study in remedial classes, and prefer a more inclusive approach to providing this support. Examples of this include

> **"[including]** ***literacy intervention within special needs …*** **[is more]** ***inclusive because … you end up with a third to half of any year group having some form of literacy intervention***"

This SENCO has taken control of a school wide literacy level agenda, providing support, regardless of diagnostic label. The service is open to all students, and encourages students to improve on their literacy level, however good. The participant describes that the purpose behind this intervention is to influence students' social perception of learning support.

> **"it was really important that [smart/cool students] should be seen coming to the [learning base] and the rude names stopped"**

One reason why students with SpLD can experience reduced wellbeing is because of bullying or victimisation. This intervention strategy demonstrates comprehension not only of social comparison theory, but also that students occupy their own social worlds (Hamarus & Kaikkonen, 2008; Beran, 2006). The Including narrative explores the potential negative effects of other exclusionary forms of support, and how participants effort to avoid these.

> **"*when you start having little groups that are taken out of lessons that you do have a major problem with inclusion*"**

and

> **"*quite a lot of children find being taken out of the lesson a bit confidence destroying because they know they're getting special treatment*"**

These progressive steps were implemented by experienced SENCO trained teachers. Gwernan-Jones and Burden (2010) support this by suggesting that more experienced teachers employ better teaching methods and can overcome behavioural or disruptive effects. Alexander-Passe (2006) notes that these inclusive approaches can reduce disruption that results from poor self-esteem and confidence. Understanding the importance of self-esteem issues within school structure is essential to developing more universally successful interventions (Humphrey, 2003; Gilbert, 2016). Cluster 1 school student participants had more positive wellbeing scores of academic self-confidence and global self-esteem. They also described experiences that correspond with the interventions described by participant teachers in the Including narrative. This is significant because it strongly indicates that students are able to describe their wellbeing in terms of inclusive practice, as defined within an academic discourse.

This social model of education is further explored by other participants who try to understand local trends and social relationships as a means to breaking down barriers of access for more vulnerable or academically disinclined students

> ***"I will talk to people, I will talk to students, I will talk to other students, I will find a way in to somehow access their learning, so I can turn it on basically"***

This represents a considerable plurality in teacher roles, and demonstrates the strong focus Including narrative participants place on pastoral support.

Cluster 1 school student participants demonstrated significantly better wellbeing than Cluster 2 participants. Wellbeing is not merely an individual concept, and where wellbeing is not approached holistically and communally, it may fail to target community wellbeing (Roffey, 2013). Community wellbeing can be understood in several ways. The capacity for promoting and improving wellbeing increases the more members share values. Including narrative participants demonstrate their understanding that community wellbeing and educational outcomes are reflexive in the structured school environment (Simmons, Graham & Thomas, 2015). Numerous pedagogic approaches have been demonstrated to enhance community wellbeing in schools (Morrison, Blood & Thorsborne, 2005; McLaughlin, 2008; Roffey, 2013).

Noaks and Noaks (2009) identify the extensive positive outcomes that can result from facilitating socially engaged support. They advocate peer mediation, as a means of bridging the gap between teacher perceptions and inclusive values. This approach involves fostering cooperation and relationships that surreptitiously affect academic and social performance. Some participants advocate a similar process at in their school

> ***"I am personally very pro peer support because the best way to learn is to teach"***

> ***"there's a lot of the peer learning, helping one another, because of the culture around practical work is not individual".***

Crucially this participant acknowledges the need to change the culture of the school (Schlessinger, 2013). This differs from targeted or specific interventions. Olssen (2016) highlights

how school culture has both structural and authoritative aspects, as well as other less explicit dynamics.

For Including narrative participants inclusive practice is fundamental to all practice. It is an aspect of their identity as a teacher. Teacher participants who acknowledged their personal experience of having dyslexia as part of their identity, had additional insights to the needs of their students. Within the Including narrative, participants have learned or adopted specific insights that have affected their identity as a teacher (Beauchamp & Thomas, 2009). They position themselves differently to teachers who do not share their values, understanding, or practice.

> **"[inclusion is]** ***just engrained in me, I mean if I'm not getting through to a student in a certain way then I change tactics*****"**

Another participant considers what their insight offers them

> **"*it enables me to see how children function and how they work and how they process*"**

Within the discourse of inclusion, issues of identifiable standards and good practice are commonplace (Hodkinson, 2006). In some of the literature inclusion is measurable and achieved by meeting milestone targets of performance. Policy cultures that are predicated on measurement and deliver can be flawed (Cannella, 2000). Participants within the Including narrative have a conception of inclusion that is broader than a performative agenda. Critics argue that measurable policy targets better ensure parity of delivery (Leung & Rea-Dickins, 2007). In the present the study, the wide variety of resource, expertise, and pedagogic practice observed and discussed by participants supports the need for better and more uniform provision in some places. An important distinction must however be made between the problematized discourse of meeting performance targets, and the barrier-free attitude towards valuing students equally and including them. One participant elegantly circumvents the hierarchical achievement discourse, defining a continuous and positive role for teacher as agents of inclusion

> ***"it's a constant struggle between the ideal, whereby everyone can assess everything to the same extent, and the reality, which is always slightly removed from that because everyone has different perceptions and different difficulties … it's not a job that's ever done"***

This participant spoke cheerfully about an adaptive and reflexive role, for which flexibility and multiplicity define meeting needs. This is comparable to Deleuze and Guattari's rhizomatic analogy, and its capacity to challenge the limitations of hierarchical systems which aim to understand interconnected systems. The web of interrelated values that can define inclusive practice develop without central valorisation, through teaching training, experience, the inclusion experience of students, and the infinitely unknowable broader context in which identity and self for all actors involved find themselves ever changing (Allan, 2004). One participant notes that the same student can respond differently over time

> ***"it's continuously making it relevant and finding a framework that will engage them"***

Participants in the Sensitive narrative share a range of beliefs about the benefits of progression towards fully inclusive education (Gibson & Kendall, 2010). The Sensitive narrative differs from the Including narrative in its reflections upon delivery. The Sensitive narrative describes values and practices that are more consistent with recognised good practice for supporting students with SpLDs in inclusive classrooms. The focus for these participants is on finding ways to make these practices sustainable and consistent. This breaks down further, where Sensitive narrative participants from School D hold the view that inclusion can be achieved soon, and once broader cooperation from other teachers is secured, and School A, where the perceived shortcoming comes from the policies and resources that other whole schools may be lacking.

In School A the practice and values purported are completely in line with the Including narrative. They support the notion of ongoing evaluation of students, and recognise the unending task of meeting student needs both academically and socially. A strong emphasis was placed on

> **"*the bigger picture, a holistic approach*"**

They also outlined the range of tools at their disposal to support each student in a bespoke manner, including

> **"*using box font for dyslexic students so they can break up the word forms so it's easier for them to think*"**

and

> **"*you give story boards, give paragraph plans, so that depends on your child*"**

These participants also describe their ethos as a school, and how this matches their consistent skill and experience level

> **"*we have a whole school approach …it's difficult to know what you mean by inclusion here*"**

Being able to apply unorthodox approaches is central to their belief that they provide high quality individually tailored for students with SpLD

> **"*what* [our dyslexia specialists] *put in for the dyslexic child … applies to speech and language, EAL*, [etc.] … *it's great because they're pretty important … and it's good they have that clout in the school … when I need to bring in the heavy guns I've got them*"**

These participants set their practice and resources apart from others. This approach implies that SpLDs are an ideal, a construct for which many teachers cannot offer adequate insight into (Bell, 2013). The subjectivity of this perspective must be considered in relation to role identification of the participants as specialists, beyond the capability of others (Youdell, 2006a; Youdell, 2006b). The ramifications for the notion of specialism may be seen to conflict with an inclusive agenda (Allan, 2004). These participants are however clear that inclusion is achievable because they have the resources to do so. This is further realised where these participants are unattached to

diagnosis based models. They recognise that labels do not represent degrees of need, but rather that some students can

> **"*need to be in a nurturing, caring environment where all the teachers teach in the same way*"**

In this case, the 'same way', has already been outlined by this participant as meaning flexibly. This is supported where another participant expresses that

> **"[individuals] *with a special learning difficulty they need to be taught in a special way, in a whole school way*"**

Inclusion can be achieved where it is possible to remove labels and barriers (Allan, 2004; Allan, 2007; Glazzard, 2012). The predominant discourse purported by these participants is not one of exclusion, nor of specialisation when it comes to supporting students. Student participants describe how the inclusion they receive affects their wellbeing, as with other schools. Furthermore deconstruction of the discourse of practices and language described by these teacher participants reveals arguments of degrees of scale, which is essentially true for every school in the study. Derrida reminds readers to review text or narratives, counter to the structural format (Biesta & Egéa-Kuehne, 2005).

Participants from school D also highlight their capacity to utilise unorthodox methodology

> **"*if I had somebody who was dyspraxic I may well get all children to do finger exercises and arm exercises to relieve tension in their hands because regardless of whether they are dyspraxic or not there are still often processing issues*"**

Much like the Sensitive narrative from School A, the Sensitive narrative from School D describes how school structures can limit teachers' capacity to deliver inclusive teaching. One participant acknowledges that some teachers do not always do justice to the provisions available by saying

> **"so many people pay lip service don't they and they don't really believe it"**

Sensitive participants from school D identified as being engaged with delivering inclusion themselves, however they describe a mixture of successes and failings in what form of inclusion is delivered

> **"[for me inclusion is] *teaching in a more multisensory way, trying to be very positive*"**

and

> **"*I'd do things like 'think pair square share' and coming up and showing their work*"**

As with participants that echoed the Including narrative promotes inclusive support in the school. They perceive however that it is not yet being delivered adequately. One participant notes that

> **"*if I weren't* [providing this extra support] *I think they'd just be, they wouldn't have their self-esteem boosted and it's absolutely vital*"**

Again similarly, the responsibility individual participants place upon themselves explains realisation of both the limits and possibilities

> **"*if I hear of any student who is not achieving as well as they should be … I can shed some light on it*"**

and

> **"*our kids just haven't been trained that way* … [that's why] *I'm making them learn off by heart … because they need to have their memories trained* [as well]"**

Other participants from the same school reinforce this expectation

> ***"I would allow the child who is struggling to be able to take part in the lesson and achieve reasonably effectively"***

Numerous studies detail the varying attitudes from teachers to facilitating inclusion (Male, 2011).Hwang and Evans (2011) note that disparity between belief and practice can represent a lack of adequate practical knowledge, and mixed views about which students should be included.

This conflict of role responsibility and identity means that some teachers in schools aiming to achieve full inclusion are limited by established behaviours (Dettmer, Thurston & Dyck, 2005). Even where some teachers are engaged in critical reflection on their own roles and practice, multiplicities can obfuscate performance of output that requires support and commitment throughout the community of each school (Ball, 2010; Sachs, 2001). Adjusting teacher attitudes is dependent on many factors, including level of training and experience (Van Veen, Sleegers & Van de Ven, 2005).

The Disparaging narrative is characterised by the understanding that inclusion means individualised attention and support, *but* that this is not achievable. This is distinct from other narratives in this theme because of the type of type of solutions participants do suggest are appropriate. Disparaging participants suggest that individualised or bespoke learning support needs are best managed by teaching assistants.

One participant suggests that

> ***"TA's will work with small groups or individuals, and that normally comes from my marking"***

Teachers often suggest that more teaching assistants would be helpful in meeting the needs of some students (Moran & Abbott, 2002; Devecchi, et al., 2012). This approach essentially condones marginalising some students. Similarly teachers have been shown to favour inclusive practice, where they are supported by additional staff (Avramidis & Norwich, 2002; Florian & Black-Hawkins, 2010). Although this could suggest a preference for co-teaching, in the present study there were no observed examples of co-teaching. Very few schools in the UK can fund co-teaching due to budget constraints.

Disparaging participants also suggested that a practically deliverable form of inclusion was not additionally negatively affected by teaching assistant support

> **"*from my experience no* [having specific students work with a TA is not a barrier to inclusion]"**

However, Giangreco and Doyle (2007) suggest that the use of teaching assistants is often exclusionary and segregates students with learning support needs, which can have problematic social outcomes. Furthermore participants described that

> **"*there's obviously only one of me … so a TA will be really useful*"**

Underlining these views is the principle that inclusion cannot work, and therefore measures to facilitate education that is *like* inclusion are appropriate. Eligson and Traustadottir (2009) warn that conflicting attitudes in teachers can emerge when specific students are supported in the classroom by an assistant. This can lead teachers to be dismissive about their responsibility to those students, and can lead to student to become dependent on the support.

The Disparaging narrative also explores other aspects of education that need individual focus, but where this cannot be achieved. One participant expresses that they time and resources are too limited to prepare resources to suit everyone's needs

> **"[classes] *takes hours and hours of preparation, and it can't always happen*"**

Another example given which supports the Disparaging narrative was the challenges of assessment. Participants argued that inclusion and standardised assessment were in conflict, and that separate or different means of assessment were not inclusive, but were necessary.

> **"*for dyslexic students* [exams] *will have a negative effect on their results, because the ability to retain information from medium term memory is impaired*"**

Effective learners learn how to learn, whilst students who are effective in exam performance have learnt how to perform at exams (Hamilton & Brown, 2005). Structural performance targets in the form of exams do not create better learners or critical thinkers when used as the basis for

self-evaluation (and thus greater depth or depth or variation in assessment modality is required). Furthermore retaining information is a poor substitute for understanding, which demeans self-esteem in those who perform poorly. Performative standards are created which teachers and students are both restricted. Therefore pedagogy is tethered to a particular form of output, without consideration for the benefits to the student (Alexander, Anderson & Gallegos, 2004).

Measuring inclusion becomes increasingly more complex, in the English school environment, where standardised tests of achievement have become so prominent (Florian, Black-Hawkins & Rouse, 2016). In the UK GCSEs and other assessments required differentiation both before and after assessment (Newton, 1996; Spielhofer, Benton & Schagen, 2004), which may not be approached equally across different schools. Pre-assessment tiering for exams may also bias marking expectations (Wheadon & Béguin, 2010).

Looney (2009) highlights that in several OECD nations, so called 'high stakes' assessments, including end of year exams, GCSEs in the UK, and other similar assessment strategies are a hindrance to the development of progressive innovations in teaching practice, as well as the development of alternative forms of assessment. As previously introduced, one participant commented that

> ***"TA's will work with small groups or individuals, and that normally comes from my marking"***

This is one example of how the process of continuous assessment can facilitate differentiation. This is supported by Florian, Black-Hawkins and Rouse (2016) who acknowledge that this is representative of the typical status-quo because datasets often do not often collect rich data. They also highlight that there are alternative innovations afforded by assessment data to enhance inclusive support, through programmes such as Assessment for Learning (Black &

Wiliam, 2005). The Disparaging narrative highlights significant structurally mitigated issues in delivering individualised inclusive education.

The Parochial narrative was the most commonly held view by those participants who believed that inclusion was not possible. Their stance is based upon assertions that differentiation such as streaming and exclusive or separate teaching/support is pragmatic inclusive practice. One participant simply relays this as

> ***"inclusivity breaks down to differentiation"***

Participants in the Parochial narrative describe systematised approaches to supporting students with SpLDs. In contrast to the view that individualised support is superior, they promote standardised assessment/numerical differentiation, and differentiating practices that remove many students with SpLDs from studying with their peers.

> **"*groups are set in accordance to ability in my subject … but … I haven't got the data in front of me*"**

and

> **"*differentiation within lessons for me specifically is based on overall class strength*"**

Similarly other participants described that this approach as inclusion

> **"*I think inclusion should be done within a setting pro form*"**

The researcher recognises that they introduced the term 'inclusion' into the interviews with participants, and therefore the term is a reflection or comparison of teaching, based on their understanding of the word, rather than a term they may have chosen to use. Participants appear to describe logical approaches and targets to achieve fairness and support for all students,

without describing any approach to socially include students. One participant describes how they extensively utilise a data driven approach to allocate and support students with SpLD, as

> **"*data allows me to draw up a personal profile and that profile pretty much shows barrister learning but also strengths, weaknesses, areas of concern*"**

At this school ICT is a key accessibility policy, and the two are interconnected

> **"*the use of an iPad could better support* [these students]"**

This participant explains that digital systems integrate and support various academic needs, whilst connected to assessment and other data, provides inclusion through accessibility aids and increased empowerment of students to access educational resources. Thomas (2011) describes how younger people (the 'digital generation') are digitally native. Although this term is problematized, the application to education and knowledge is justified. The notion of access to information has changed with technology, and may have changed teachers' roles in the process of learning. Plurality of sources of information and new mediums of information transmission, create a greater need for explicit core skills and critical thinking (Littlejohn, Beetham & McGill, 2012; Lambert & Cuper, 2008). Digital literacies also deconstruct traditional methods, and facilitate different collaborative and individual approaches to learning (Tapscott, 2009).

In this school where accessibility is a dominant discourse around supporting additional learning needs the participant was the SENCO and was evidently responsible for the dissemination of this discourse, due to their passion for it, and analytical background. Accessibility endorses enabling less-able individuals to achieve at the same level as 'typical' individuals, rather than promoting pluralism of modalities for achievement, and recognising the different and beneficial experience and perspectives of others (Annable, Goggin & Stienstra, 2007). The approach to which digital accessibility has the capacity to transcend this scope and rhetoric is unknown. More child-centric studies are required to comprehend being included through digital accessibility.

The opportunity to extend personal capabilities in line with the accessibility model through digital means is supported by Seale (2013), in their review of using E-Learning in higher education. Seale however notes that different ways of making learning accessible can have different consequences for voice, independence, and inclusion. Student perspectives are sometimes lacking in research and in the classroom. Therefore operationalising digital accessibility that does not facilitate increasing the voice of students in designing their learning may in fact have the opposite effect. Florian and Hegarty (2004) describe ICT as tool for inclusion, but also note that there is a need for further development in order to achieve this. Sánchez, et al. (2011) highlights that the conception of digital nativity which underpins much of the drive towards this approach may not actually represent some marginalised groups, nor accommodate for some learning styles.

The Parochial narrative represents a perspective that whilst willing to indulge innovation, remains fervent in terms of values and many relations within the classroom. The Parochial narrative naturally also emphasises more traditional practical inclusive steps to supporting students with SpLDs inclusively, including

> ***"we run a phonics programme"***

and

> ***"TA's are vital with working within small groups to make sure that everybody is included in the right programme and their needs are met"***

In these examples, established protocols are not challenged by participants, and accepted uncritically as appropriate. The Parochial narrative is not trapped by intellectualism, and does not aim to discriminate, but it is constrained by pragmatic limitations. This appears to lead those advocating the Parochial narrative to believe that differentiation presents no problem for students with SpLDs. Parochial seemed an appropriate term to describe a narrative where some

participants express that changing policies towards inclusion can create short term challenges for teachers

> **"*the timetabling seems to be a lot more erratic, so I don't know where's there's adults supporting students in class*"**

This participant describes efforts at their school to encourage inclusive practices. Other participants appear similarly reliant on these non-inclusive forms of support to enable them to teach

> **"*if the classes are well differentiated and the TA's are deployed effectively* [things work well]"**

This implies that differentiation, and not inclusion, is the appropriate approach to support. Other participants defer on many aspects of inclusion to other members of staff, admonishing responsibility for the practicalities of delivery, as in

> **"*we've got … somebody who comes in who is there for student wellbeing*"**

and

> **"*I don't really know* [what good wellbeing is] *I haven't really thought about it before*"**

This participant does not acknowledge any relationship between their teaching and managing their students' wellbeing. In this school in the present study student participants had the lowest psychometric wellbeing scores. This may suggest that the separation of wellbeing/inclusion and teaching can be problematic for students. Sideridis (2007) suggests that teachers have a responsibility to students' wellbeing in class because of the origin of vulnerability for many students with SpLD, in the performance level of certain academic tasks. Teachers may be limited by workload or other pressures to limit the realms of support that they offer to students. This may also result in many students not getting the support that they need.

Another example of this different role identification is raised by another participant. They distance themselves from this responsibility for achieving inclusion within the classroom

> ***"TA's … make sure that everybody is included in the right programme and their needs are met"***

Teaching assistants do not have the experience or knowledge of teachers, neither in subject specific content, nor in the depth of theoretical knowledge regarding support SpLDs (Watkinson, 2002; Eligson & Traustadottir, 2009). Unlike co-teaching, in which similar teacher skillsets are shared around a class, in order to deliver inclusive/differentiated support, relying on the teaching assistant is reducing the access to a higher quality of teaching for a marginalised group, and thus devaluing individuals who have disability labels (Pappamihiel, 2016). The longer term effects of this can have profound social and developmental outcomes, limiting the achievement of potential (Anderson, 2009; Lewis & Norwich, 2004).

The Parochial narrative is based in divisive disability based language which is used to justify variation in the quality of teaching. The Parochial narrative does not however include participants who are opposed to inclusion. Participants do not criticise the inclusion agenda, and appear to support the intention behind it. Guskey (2003) suggests that professional development for educators can vary significantly, regardless of an individuals' intended path or focus. It is possible for some teachers to fail to access professional development that may support certain models of learning. Inclusion is no different. In the present study classroom observation showed variation in some areas between schools, and considerable difference between schools. Neither of these observational analyses alone constitutes proof of much, but they do support the attitudinal variations between teachers. As previously explored, student participants from Cluster 2 schools have expressed a difference in teacher attitudes and teaching approaches which they feel have a negative impact on their wellbeing. The differences highlighted described

patterns of teacher behaviour which often prioritised teacher time on others, and situations where difference or exclusion operated in their disfavour. One participant in the Parochial narrative aspired to the crowning achievement of

> **"[inclusion means] *open and fair access to* [the] *curriculum*"**

Similarly another participant uses inclusive terminology to describe provisions which are by many standards inclusive

> ***"to me it means making sure that everyone has the access to the same opportunities, so everyone is included … inclusion is included"***

Hermeneutic analysis of this excerpt revealed that it expresses minimalised responsibility in teaching. The argument is put forth that belonging and inclusion in the class are a product of mere presence in it.

Macdonald and Stratta (2001) note that widening participation, as compared to classroom inclusion strategies are not successfully supporting some students into university, or while they are there. O'Hara (2013) notes that common inclusive cultures in the UK can sometimes limit professional progression and training for individuals with SpLDs. Although individually different attitudes dominate the diversity of this theme, the Parochial narrative relies on relation to structural expectation to set limitations for practice

> ***"government has a clear line on what they expect to see … differentiation is a clear aspect of that … so that's the legal bit"***

The Averse narrative explores a negative attitude towards students of differing abilities being taught together, highlighting pitfalls in classroom dynamics and in the whole principle of schools which accommodate students with disabilities alongside typical ability students. A medically based diagnosis model is inferred as the logical impetus in these viewpoints. In the context of the

interviews, participants were encouraged to think about students with SpLDs. Participants suggest that students with SpLDs should be managed alongside other lower ability students or those with disabilities. Although this narrative was only minimally represented in the study, it was none-the-less significant to the array of views explored in this theme.

One participant expresses concern that

> **"[inclusion can]** ***force students in to situations that, the teachers and the staff know that they can't cope*****"**

This suggests that that inclusion as a top-down agenda serves a purpose other than the best interests of individual students, and that teachers who know students' potential are better placed to make individual decisions about how to appropriate involve weaker performing students.

Teacher perceptions about supporting students in inclusive environments successfully can result from level of training or understanding about different learning support needs (Van Veen, Sleegers & Van de Ven, 2005; Jung, 2007; Mintz, 2007; Wilkins & Nietfeld, 2004). Similarly resource limitations further limit the efficacy of interventions (Dobbelsteen, Levin & Oosterbeek, 2002; Jordan, Schwartz & McGhie-Richmond, 2009). A resource limitation argument is put forth by one participant

> **"*you inherently spend a lot of time supporting the C-D students … and not spending time on the A-A* students*"**

This somewhat teleological argument purports the priority for education should be to focus on higher achieving students, as they have more worth (Wrigley, 2004). Origins of contrary viewpoints stem back as far as Aristotle's difference principle, however more relevant is the legal obligation in the UK to support students with a variety of learning support needs to achieve their potential (Department for Education and Skills (DfES), 2003). In recent years many teachers have

argued that resources have limited their capacity to deliver inclusive education (Dobbelsteen, Levin & Oosterbeek, 2002; Jordan, Schwartz & McGhie-Richmond, 2009); however some teachers appear unwilling to teach students labelled as SEN, or do not see it as their responsibility or even profession, comparable to findings by Bayliss (1995).

One participant argues that inclusion forces teachers to fit students into a mould, rather than allowing them to work and achieve to their own potential

> **"[Inclusion]** ***can be used negatively by LEAs … forcing students to a GCSE programme, because it states that they have to have an inclusive learning, when everyone knows they're not going to be able to focus"***

Local education authorities (LEAs) and government policy require most students to sit standardised assessments such as SATs and GCSEs, which structure ability groups and define options for further education. Students who are not required to sit these exams will have learning disabilities, or health conditions that would inhibit access to school. Although other assessments exist, they are mandatory for state run schools. One of the schools in the present study is a private fee paying school, where students do not sit SATs, and GCSEs are not required for all students. Some teachers and theorists argue that there is too much formal assessment in school for all students, and that students with learning support needs, and those of typical ability would benefit from alternative approaches to assessment (Colby-Kelly & Turner, 2007; Munn, et al., 2004). This could also represent a more inclusive approach to assessment (Black, et al., 2009).

One participant describes literacy difficulties using a medical model, and argues that it is comparable to conditions which cannot be remediated

> **"*they don't have a reasonably basic literacy level, particularly reading - if you were blind you'd ask someone to read it for you*"**

This attitude underpins this narrative, where participants express that they see no way for some students to succeed in mainstream school.

This theme represents an array of perspectives on whether inclusion and inclusive practices are adequate to support the needs of students with SpLDs. Perspectives differ quite considerably between every school in the study, a Theory vs Practice dichotomy is ultimately the best description of this theme.

6.3 Concluding the Results Chapter

The purpose of this chapter was to explore the IPA analysis of the student and teacher interview data, integrating aspects of previously reported quantitative analyses and observations. Themes emerged from the analysis which explore different aspects of the relationship between teaching practice and student wellbeing.

Student interview data yielded four distinct themes. Within different themes contrasting archetypal perspectives were often predictable by a fifth theme dividing Cluster 1 and Cluster 2 schools. The Cluster 1 / Cluster 2 division not only represents biographical difference between participants, but it used as representation of the measured facets of observation statistics, and of psychometric wellbeing differences of the participants per school. This approach integrates quantitative data into the qualitative theme, without the need to restate every finding. Cluster 1 and Cluster 2 schools are defined as being evidentially different in their traits, and in these measurable outcomes. From the applicability of the Cluster 1 / Cluster 2 model, we also know that:

a) There was not statistically supported difference between each school individually upon these measures
b) There was not qualitatively supported difference between each school individually based on the nature of inquiries

The high concordance between psychometric data and interview analyses supports the credibility of the theme constructs, and demonstrates that participants have articulated the relationships that define them.

Teacher interview data yielded three distinct themes (Psychosocial Wellbeing at Risk, Support Teachers to Support SpLDs, Can Inclusion Work?). Only one teacher theme can be considered

predictive of the Cluster 1 / Cluster 2 divide, although it features in another, but with less power due to a weak sample. The impact of different teacher values and beliefs about the inclusive practice and student wellbeing delineate outcomes relating to student perspectives. These themes closely mirror the experiences from the student analyses, providing a structural or authoritative perspective.

Teacher themes serve to attach professional and theoretical discourses, to the experiences of the education environment. In the next chapter the relationship between different themes and data sources is discussed. In the exploration of the research question different discourses are integrated in order to draw conclusions about merits of the findings from the study. Teacher perspectives play an integral role in understanding student perspectives on wellbeing, where the next chapter explores proposals for policy and practice.

Throughout this chapter themes derived through the IPA process have been explored and critiqued. Integrating other forms of data has allowed the researcher to confidently support the findings, and demonstrate the effectiveness of the plural epistemological approach. These IPA themes are complex and plural. In the next chapter the discussion integrates these thematic findings, and explores the conclusive outcomes of the study. Chapter 7 continues the discussion of the results in this chapter, and explores theoretical grounding for integrated findings.

7 . Discussions, Policy, and Conclusion

This chapter presents the reader the findings from the study overall. Firstly the research question is evaluated with respect to the results discussed in the previous chapter. Secondly the study is critiqued, in order to examine the utility of the findings as contributions to theory and policy domains. Finally overall conclusions are made

The purpose of this chapter is to translate a complex study into findings, outcomes and proposals that can contribute to the literature exploring the wellbeing of students with Specific Learning Difficulties (SpLDs). The study has demonstrated important relationships between inclusive teaching and student wellbeing for students with SpLDs. This chapter explores how to interpret these findings, including evaluating the strengths and limitations of the study. This chapter begins by summarising the findings of the previous chapter. Although thematic outcomes are the primary output for discussion, the themes as classifiers do not represent the full strength of the study. They require further interpretation in order to connect them to policy and practice proposals.

Section 6.1 below continues the discussion of the findings from the previous chapter. The exploration and critique of themes in Chapter 6 was limited to the separate IPA analyses for student and teacher participants. Section 7.1 extends this discussion to examine a theoretical critique of integrated findings from both IPA analyses. The chapter describes this approach, exploring novel meta-narratives, and introducing new perspectives for understanding emotional engagement in learning.

The primary findings from Chapter 6 exist within the themes; however the strongest finding was evident as both a qualitative thematic divide, and a statistically supported divide in psychometric measures. Cluster 1 refers to School A and School D, while Cluster 2 refers to School B and School

C. Overall Cluster 1 school student participants have better wellbeing than those from Cluster 2 schools. Cluster 1 student participants report more favourable outcomes in polarised themes. Cluster 1 teacher participants also express a more inclusive attitude and describe more inclusive practices that take student wellbeing into consideration, than with Cluster 2 school teacher participants. The student and teacher IPA analyses revealed rich and complex findings because of the nature of the exploration and focus of capturing authentic voices. Some of the key findings are summarised below:

Students without adequate support do not feel in control of themselves or their environment, and the support interventions they receive are pivotal to their understanding of how fair they feel they are treated. When students who feel this injustice are punished, it can lead to a state of learnt helplessness. This is a type of depression which results in disengagement and spiralling poor self-esteem. Students can learn to understand their own needs, but feeling understood and listened to is an essential first step. Because of this vulnerability of students with SpLDs can often begin in the classroom, directly related to challenges that result from having and SpLD. This vulnerability is primarily poor social and emotional resilience, and is demonstrated to be a direct cause of bullying. Poor academic self-confidence disempowers individuals in their approach to their broader social comparisons, because it affects confidence and identity construction. It is essential teachers provide safety and support to transition to a position of self-acceptance. Early interventions can reduce these issues arising.

Embracing an SpLD identity can have positive and negative consequences. This outcome is mitigated by the opportunities available to make favourable social comparisons. Students benefit from being able to achieve in front of their peers. Those who do not identify as having an SpLD identity are less emotionally invested, and therefore less positively or negatively affected by the qualities of these opportunities. Students who acknowledge an SpLD identity have a clearer

pathway to accessing and engaging with interventions and support that they need. Unfortunately access to appropriate support interventions can sometimes be limited by resources.

Large class sizes were found to be problematic for the management and identification of behaviour problems, and the effect of behaviour problems on other students with SpLDs in a class. Students with SpLDs struggle to compensate for behavioural interruptions that they instigate or are going on around them. Teachers need more time to monitor and support the engagement of all students with SpLD in the class individually. Methods that support self-regulation, such as structuring the environment and workload, and approaches to subvert socially motivated interruptions, including not rewarding certain behaviours with attention, are beneficial for students with SpLDs. Teachers who demonstrate a good understanding of how to engage students with SpLDs also often dedicate more attention to their wellbeing because they recognise that the two are not separable. Many teachers lack this knowledge, and need to improve their understanding of psychosocial wellbeing in order to support their students with SpLDs. Some teachers do not understand how these issues relate to classroom disruption, which can result in behaviour management approaches that are not-supportive to students, and that may often be unsuccessful.

The positive steps towards inclusion discovered in this study are often faced with the obstacle of institutional structural power. Systems in schools, including many that are target driven, do not best serve students with SpLDs who would benefit from better inclusion. Teachers recognise this, but often feel powerless to resist the institutional pressures themselves. As a result teachers can become unmotivated to deliver inclusion. Teachers should be empowered with greater resources and training. SENCOs are well placed to support this, but need more influence and control over school policies or practices. Some teachers are sceptical about the practicalities of inclusion because of the expectations of their colleagues and managers. Many teachers are

unknowledgeable about the difference between differentiation and inclusion, and this results in students be marginalised unnecessarily. Teachers often hold views that conflict with an inclusive agenda, including discriminatory views about students they label as having behavioural problems, being less intelligent, or categorised as being the responsibility of a disability specialist.

These thematic findings incorporate the following statistical findings for the current sample, however the most significant statistical findings are also summarised below:

- Measures of verbal ability, general self-confidence, and school self-confidence were the strongest predictors of overall wellbeing for the sample. These measures also had the strongest correlation with each other
- Cluster 1 school participants scored significantly better wellbeing scores than Cluster 2 schools
- Students with dyspraxia or multiple SpLD diagnoses has the poorest overall wellbeing scores
- Students listed as receiving exclusionary or differentiated forms of academic support scored more negatively on social relationship measures
- Cluster 1 schools were a predictor for some positive traits – trustworthiness and honesty. Furthermore School A (part of Cluster 1) was a predictor of positive self-appraisal in sporting ability and physical appearance

The meaning and value of these findings must be considered, in terms of the achievements of the study, and through integration of these findings. In the following section *Exploring the Research Question* findings are critiqued to examine connections pertinent to research question, and to extracting practice and policy guidance.

7.1 Exploring the Research Question

This section continues the discussion of findings from Chapter 6, based on novel integration of two separate IPA analyses.

The research question was based on extensive literature that highlight how individuals with SpLD can experience reduced wellbeing (Rowe, Stewart & Patterson (2007; Ingesson, 2007; Sideridis, 2007). The literature review highlighted that defining who individuals with SpLDs are, and what is meant by the term wellbeing, is not necessarily simple. The primary relationship explored in the research question is that between 'teaching methods' and the 'wellbeing of students with SpLDs'. Exploring the research methodology design ultimately promoted investigating these phenomena separately. This was in part because the myriad of other interactions and experiences pertinent to either phenomenon were deemed to be outside of the scope of the study.

In the previous chapter, the results were explored utilising discursive constructs and theory that highlighted and explained viewpoint and conception. This attempted to present phenomena as intractable from perspective. The embodiment and actions of actors in these relationships enabled the study to ground structural and theoretical assertions in experience. The research question however is not best examined through the interpretation of experience alone because the findings reveal three assertions that contradict an experiential paradigm:

1) Structural influences that are outside of the perception of individual actors have considerable effect on the relationship explored in the research question

2) Teacher participant discourse does not address several aspects of the psychological construct of the SpLD student, as intimated by student participants
3) Collective influences in the social realm are the pastoral responsibility of teacher participants, but community, culture, and engagement define subconscious[8] motivations for student and teacher participants

The impact of structural influences in the present study was voiced by some participants, and became apparent from the interactions and processes described by others. Themes in Chapter 6 are interpreted in relation to several theorists and theoretical constructs. Central to understanding structural influences is the power differential between teachers and students. Teachers operate with authority over most aspects of school life. Teachers command the dominant discourse in the education environment, and have responsibility for the predominant activities and targets that define the structural measures of education delivery and performance (Anderson & Grinberg, 1998). Furthermore teachers also control discipline. The inequality between teachers and students is further increased for students with SpLDs. Several other studies support the present findings that students with SpLDs position themselves, or are positioned by others, as having less agency in the educational environment than typical peers (Ingesson, 2007; Burden, 2008).

Power in the education environment is not always directly obvious or visible. Structural power is also not the only type of power that occurs (Hamarus & Kaikkonen, 2008; Beran, 2006). In the present study both student and teacher participants explicitly expressed their comprehension of and dissatisfaction with certain power relations. Although these may not represent some aspects of underlying hegemonic forms of power, it is non-the-less essential for these perspectives to be forefront of the presentation of the research, in order to give voice to experiences that may otherwise be marginalised by the dominant practices and standards of education.

[8] Bourdieu's Habitus is both social and embodied, and thus subconsciously motivating (Brubaker, 1993)

Student participants expressed that power is often wielded unfairly by teachers. Students described feeling powerless and not having a voice in the classroom, resulting in their emotional and learning needs being ignored. Some teachers identified that themselves and their colleagues had the power to make a different, by employing more multisensory and inclusive teaching practices, but that this power was often idly not put to good use. The power for teachers to intervene and mitigate children's social experiences of school was also highlighted by both students and teachers. Both groups expressed that this power was not adequately utilised, and that this resulted in vulnerability and bullying. Student and teacher participants appeared generally complacent about the inherent power differential, and maximising voice or choice tended to be expressed within a narrow remit. Punishment for example divided participants on how students could improve behaviour to avoid punishment, as well as whether punishment was appropriate as an intervention of power.

In modern performative education, the written word constructs the dominant discourse of capability and value (Verene, 2002). This problematized discourse of target achievement within this particular confine poses a significant risk to the facilitation of barrier-free attitudes towards valuing students equally, and inclusion (Simmons, Graham & Thomas, 2015; Jull, 2008). This intellectualism discourse is further problematic because it can lead to individuals being labelled or marginalised within the classroom (Dyson, 1999; Graham & Slee, 2008). In this study several student participants have described their experiences of being marginalised, including unhelpful segregation, teachers not supporting them in a mainstream class, and teachers failing to acknowledge their learning support needs. Teacher participants similarly acknowledged that these perspectives are accurate, including descriptions of their own shortcomings due to resources or lack of knowledge, or where participants comment on the inadequate attitudes and delivery from the colleagues.

The study revealed that structural disempowerment was not always in a direct relationship to students. Teachers described several ways in which they were not enabled to deliver adequate support or critical pedagogy. Training was highlighted as problematic, where opportunities to explore inclusive practice and

SEND deemed inadequate. Teacher participants indicated that universities and their associated training schools had a responsibility to focus more on these areas. The literature suggests that teachers often lack the theoretical knowledge about SEND student, which should be taught at university, however the literature purports that training may *really* be lacking in preparing teachers to engage in critical pedagogy (Gabel, 2002; Florian & Black-Hawkins, 2010), and that this is the greater issue. Critical pedagogues are more able to examine the needs of students and develop support processes in an inclusive manner. Information about specific diagnostic labels can only go so far. Adjusting teacher attitudes is dependent on many factors, including level of training and experience (Van Veen, Sleegers & Van de Ven, 2005).

Resources were often highlighted as another barrier to inclusive practice, and this is reflected in the literature (Sosu, Mtika & Colucci-Gray, 2010; Jung, 2007; Hilton, 2017; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2017). Teacher participants described multiple limited resources, including their own time, teaching materials, support staff, and finance. Inclusive practice and/or critical pedagogy were very much dependant on the culture at the individual school, and how accessible and motivated other staff were within the school community. The result was often that inclusion was delivered either with a disproportionate workload for some staff members, or that a lack of cohesion resulted in these admirable notions being treated as piecemeal insincere tokens/gestures that ultimately did not deliver.

This study has found that critical engagement with students is a structurally mitigated phenomenon. There are numerous obstacles which teachers may not realise affect the support they provide (Ball, 2010; Sachs, 2001). The performative teacher role is partially the product of a target driven environment, and as a result care and support for student wellbeing is often not monitored or understood. Without this perspective informing teaching, vulnerable students are often excluded. Many teachers are disincentivised to identify and respond to this scenario (Skinner & Belmont, 1993; Reeve, 2009).

The theoretical underpinnings of wellbeing have been explored in detail in Chapter 3. Interest in therapeutic discourses in education has increased in recent years, where educators aim to target wellbeing directly through psychotherapeutic interventions (Gold, et al., 2010; Jalongo, 2005; Crane, et al., 2010).

Psychotherapeutic interventions can be delivered to individuals or groups, and very often propose to improve wellbeing (or a derivative). Explicit psychotherapy was not targeted towards individuals or groups involved in the present study. The implicit psychotherapeutic nature of other explored interactions within the education environment provides a further basis for analysis. The implicit nature of some psychotherapy has been recognised for many years. Rosenzweig (1936) was an early proponent of identifying that ordinary interactions could sometimes have the same implicit traits as psychotherapeutic interventions, and that psychotherapy did not achieve all it set out simply by the design of that psychotherapy. Interaction, listening, and engaged dialogue were common to 'all' forms of psychotherapy. Rosenzweig's perspective is essential to understanding the modern comprehension of psychotherapy in terms of relationships, exchanges, and person-centred attention to needs. Rosenzweig suggested that therapy was a safe and structured space in which this took place, but which *also* focussed on specific needs relevant to a particular diagnosis. Despite waning popularity, these ideas now occupy many grounds in psychological discourse (Wampold & Imel, 2015).

One principally challenging argument is variation. Output (or behaviour) is an essential component in much of psychotherapy. The performative patient is measured by the performance of improvement – which has naturally been encouraged (Russell, 1973; Ghaemi, 1999). Education also operates on a largely performative approach, with monitoring in many schools based on academic outcomes only (Ball, 2003; Mulcahy, 2011). This study has explored how in some schools teachers remit their responsibility to teaching for the sake of learning and little else, and how students experience this as disengaged teaching. The prominent theoretical explanation that emerged from the hermeneutic analysis was the structure of teaching roles has left teachers as essentially performatist 'players' (Ball, 2003; Jull, 2008). The construct of the job requires targets and related agendas be met, within a restrictive finite window, and therefore the post-modern teacher performs the role of educator, at the risk of failing to engage with the student.

Vygotsky's Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) has applications in both psychotherapy and education, in terms of understanding growth and agency (Holzman, 2006). Agents in education (teacher, student), and in

psychotherapy (therapist, patient), are both engaged in performance as a means of growth, not limited by performance, but *because* of performance. For psychotherapists, this means increasing the connection, meaning, and understanding between agents, and thus better fulfilling the goal of the relationship. This is achieved in a manner similar to described by Rosenzweig (1936), by enhancing implicit traits of connection in the process. Sadly, as explored in the present study, performativity of the modern teacher has become hindered by structural limitations.

In Chapter 6, the importance of critical pedagogic engagement is highlighted. This study demonstrates that teacher engagement and support is essential for students with SpLD, and that attention needs to be critical and individualised, in order for students to develop positive self-concept in education. Vygotsky's ZPD concept not only places agents into a psychotherapeutic paradigm in which growth reciprocates, but it also describes how teaching styles can be adapted to incorporate this need (Renshaw, 1998). Fundamental to the ZPD is the understanding of need, which is task oriented and augmenting. These processes are intrinsically tied to both a psychotherapeutic discourse and Vygotsky's learning paradigm for education (Holzman, 2006; Holzman, 2014; Tharp, 1999). Furthermore, the challenging and explorative qualitative aspects of critical pedagogy are born out of necessity through this paradigm because of the essential consideration of understanding the origin of each individual's needs. It might therefore seem strange to note that psychotherapeutic pedagogy is not commonly linked with Vygotsky. There remains to this day a gap between the psychological and the pedagogical (Breuing, 2011).The concept of a 'secure base' in attachment theory supports this linkage (Bowlby, 2005).

Vygotsky's social constructivism is often positioned as in-conflict with politically critically thinkers such as Giroux and Freire. Where critical pedagogy is problematized a political adjunct to an otherwise theoretically and morally clean construction such as social development can become entwined. It perhaps forgotten that Vygotsky's vision was to create a pedagogy for socialist ideology (Stetsenko, 2009). Vygotsky provides the tools for education to facilitate personal growth and identity development, not just knowledge transfer. The epistemological framework for this study introduces Fischer's (2007) adaptive

approach to integrating contradictory epistemologies. Similarly then, Bourdieu's Habitus approaches the synthesis of knowledge from theoretical and practical ontologies by bridging the space between critical sociological theory and psychosocial wellbeing in context (Brubaker, 1993; Dika & Singh, 2002; Moore, 2006).

Vygotsky also integrates theory and practice connecting teaching to wellbeing. Thus a meta-synthesis of practices and theories is possible that relates the structural theories of critical pedagogy to the intervention practices of the psychotherapeutic discourses, for the classroom (Bigger, 2011; Collins, 2013). The embodied role that results has the capacity to be a critical pedagogue. Obviously the pastoral role has historically encompassed this intention (Hartley, 2010; Clark, 2008). However this reimagined critical and psychotherapeutic pedagogue is not limited by the detached identification with multiple separate responsibilities, but instead can incorporate psychotherapeutic discipline into their inclusive practice (Fischer, 2008; Fischer & Lang, 1999; Holzman, 2014).

This study has demonstrated that the relationship between teaching methods and student wellbeing is multifaceted. Specific teaching methods are acknowledged and favoured by participants, but this alone does not constitute the relationship that is described. Participants invariably discussed relationships, trust, understanding, and supportive delivery of teaching methods. The study highlights some types of intervention that are not compatible with this outcome, such as competitive classroom goal structures, exclusionary interventions, and written appraisals. Participants however frequently qualified their aspersions by relating their perception of inattention and focus on meeting their needs from teachers.

Some teachers in the study evidently provide a high standard of inclusive education, which does involve specific methods, beyond individualised, attentive support. The methods highlighted as well-received in the study typically involved freedom to work at individual pace, including accelerated reading and creative projects. Participants also praised approaches that eliminated competitive nature in the classroom. Multisensory and more practically based (as opposed to written) approaches were also described as better ways to learn, that facilitate better engagement. Student participants were fairly consistent in these views.

They displayed an understanding that they had different learning needs, and that these methods assisted them in breaking down barriers and in making positive progress. Teacher participants had mixed views. One significant divide in the study was over the suitability of these methods, and whether they could be practically implemented. Some teacher participants (specifically those from Cluster 2 schools) did not relate these sorts of specific methods with inclusive support, or implied that the relationship did not warrant their attention.

Employing adaptive teaching methods described in the study is supported in the literature, in order to benefit student engagement (Riddick, 2011; Di Martino & Zan, 2009, 2011). What this study has found is that engagement is a central reciprocal process between teacher and student, and that maximising engagement involves more than just cognitive adaptations through teaching styles. Understanding teacher knowledge and resource limitations are as important as considering the individual student capabilities and self-regulation, as well as the culture of inclusion at the school. The outcome should be assessed in terms of successful engagement between teacher and student. Norwich (2013) supports this stating that inclusion should prioritise engagement, which requires critical assessment of needs.

Student participants express that their engagement with teachers, through teaching methods, are complex, dependant on context, and intrinsically part of their relationship with both the teacher, and with peers. The implications of this, and from the perspectives and attitudes expressed by student and teacher participants, is that teachers need to have a greater awareness of what kind of relationships that are fostered by their practice. The culture of the classroom is constructed through language, routine, goal structures, concepts of achievement and recognition, and through managing behavioural and social aspects of peer relationships. This may explain why the intervention approaches in School C based on data and technological monitoring do not produce better wellbeing outcomes than in School B, despite the level of sophistication and detailed information that this system provides to teachers. Contrastingly School A and School D focus on developing close relationships.

Bowlby (2005) describes how the secure base provides the psychological grounding for growth and learning. As this study has revealed through the voices of students, growth and learning are multifaceted, and reliant upon a 'secure base' in more domains than the primary focus of education for learning. Teachers should aim to provide a secure base for other aspects of the student experience, including social experiences, in order to enable learning and development. This may be of greater importance for students with SpLDs because they face additional social and learning barriers, that often go unaddressed.

Students recognise the capacity teachers have to subvert social motivations and support self-regulation through engaged teaching practices. Students who do not feel included or listened to in the class create later demands on teachers' time and resources. Students welcome this sort of engaged intervention from teachers. They do not rebel against the structure, as some teachers suggest. The pivotal theoretical explanation for this is that learning is a social process (Lackaye, et al., 2006), and that the learning environment is a significant formative domain which types of social relations are developed. The highly structured nature of this environment shapes core aspects of identity and self-concept, which are generalised in other contexts. Foucault describes this process of indoctrination into narrow intellectualism as an abuse of power (Peters, 2003; Olssen, 2016). In this study, where teaching culture that includes diverse individuals' needs without prejudice, students describe feeling understood. This correlates with positive wellbeing described and measured in the study.

The initial premise of the present study is that students with specific learning difficulties may be vulnerable compared with typical peers. Some participants were expected to experience negative wellbeing in the school environment. This study has adequately confirmed these expectations through grounded and cross-referenced data collection methods which have expressed the perspectives of students with SpLDs in British schools. Although this study does not claim that the sampled school environments are representative of the general climate of schools in the UK, the voices of the participants are authentic. They are party to the national discourse and culture of education standards and implementation, as well as offering insights from both student and teacher participants of whom many have wide experience of other

UK schools from which to draw comparisons. The primary finding in relation to the student wellbeing is that there is a division in students' wellbeing between Cluster 1 and Cluster 2 schools. Therefore approximately half of the student sample in the study was found to experience poor wellbeing which they associated with their school experiences. Furthermore several student participants were found to either have transitioned, or were in a transitional phase with regards their self-acceptance and wellbeing, in relation to their school experiences. Therefore this study identifies a significant risk to the wellbeing of students with SpLDs.

Performative teaching standards present a significant hazard for student wellbeing. Target driven teaching that operates on standardised processes often promotes an intellectualism discourse. The proliferation of this actually creates bullying and victimisation within the classroom. This is partly due to social comparison effects, where persistent negative social comparisons affect self-esteem and confidence. Furthermore evidence in this study from both student and teacher participants has revealed how teachers 'locked' in a performative intellectualism practice actually reduce the support and attention they give to those students who really need it most. This marginalisation is both a structural impairment for student development, and an affliction on social aspects of identity formation.

In this study there was a profound difference between Cluster 1 and Cluster 2 schools. Teacher participants from Cluster 2 schools did not identify these routes of vulnerability, and instead interpreted the causal relationships to focus on disobedience and behaviour problems. Notably this stance described these 'problems' as outside of the normal remit of the teacher. A substantial difference between Cluster 1 and Cluster 2 schools was the apparent training and ethos at the school. Cluster 1 schools demonstrated admirable standards of training and a community attitude towards supporting students. In Cluster 1 schools teacher participants identified their understanding of the aforementioned proliferation of classroom traits that can lead to students becoming vulnerable. In Cluster 2 schools this knowledge was absent, and vulnerability was described in reserved terms pertinent to standardised safeguarding training.

This study has found evidence in support of other studies that learnt helplessness can result for students with SpLDs where teachers are not aware or supportive of their vulnerabilities in the classroom. Learnt helplessness is a state that is, or may become, generalised beyond the classroom space. The study has identified that a psychosocial wellbeing model best describes the risks inherent to this. This is because learning is socially engaged and performed in front of peers, and therefore entire psychosocial self-concept can be affected, resulting in poor general wellbeing for at risk students. Personal growth and development for these students can be negatively affected. A secure self-position is required from which to make congruous developmental strides. These at risk students may lack both a personal secure confident base, and a supportive base from a trusted mentor.

Although the focus of this study has been students with SpLDs, the model of inclusion presented in the study, and used to model aspects of teaching (by both teacher participants and the researcher) applies much more broadly. There are numerous scenarios in the learning environment where students not identified with an SpLD or any other SEND need, but where they may find themselves marginalised or victimised. Regardless of ability students can experience bullying because of classroom interactions. Students who are more likely to be victimised display characteristics such as reduced confidence or reduced social skills. Depending on the learning modality of the classroom, confidence may be positively or negatively affected by how well teaching adapts to various learning styles, as well as how teachers use praise and reinforcement, and balance the time attention paid to various profiles of students equally. Critical pedagogy should apply equally to all students.

The value of increased critical engagement with students has been clearly demonstrated in this study. Participants explain that they need this level of attention and individual comprehension and understanding from teachers, almost *before* they are assigned performative educational tasks. This notion introduces a hypothetical rearrangement of certain structural roles and processes because this study has identified many teachers are not able to critically engage with their students due to performative pressures. Furthermore performative standards are often used to identify who to target critical engagement at – but

this is too late. This resource management approach curtails the inclusivity of interventions. Additionally, damage can already have been done by this point. The student experience is a developmental continuum, and internalising negative self-concept early on puts future learning at risk. Delayed, incomplete, and purely performative assessments do not meet the learning support needs of students with SpLDs, and they put student wellbeing at risk.

The findings of this study demonstrate that this can be achieved in an inclusive manner. Although it may be challenging to get children to think positively about diversity, early and consistent intervention and teaching that promotes it has been proven to have a positive effect (Ashburn & Snow, 2011). Personal narratives often include prominent details throughout the lifespan, and therefore early interventions are crucial to reducing negative personal narratives through the formative years of education (Terras, Thompson & Minnis, 2009). Early individual understanding and identification with having and SpLD, as crucial in supporting resilience (Glazzard, 2012). These findings are mirrored in neuro-educational research, where early interventions can be shown to increasingly impact neuroplasticity and positive development, the earlier the intervention (Balbernie, 2001). All students should never be considered the same, nor should critical teaching that aims to promote increased student wellbeing be based on the assumption that students *can*, or indeed *cannot* do work. Student perspectives and capabilities need to be individually explored.

Currently many students with SpLDs in UK schools are vulnerable. They did not start out vulnerable. The structure of performative target lead educational standards has made them vulnerable by exposing them to structures which lead inevitably to their experiencing negative social comparisons, shame, poor self-concept, and isolation. This is repetitive and ongoing, and leads to disengagement which has significant psychosocial ramifications. This occurs because these students become conditioned to a state of learnt helplessness. Experiencing this in the formative years has lifelong negative consequences. Without critical supportive and understanding engagement from teachers, these individuals have no safe base from which

to make the essential learning, achievement, social and personal growth developments that are essential to positive psychological wellbeing.

This study has also demonstrated that under the right circumstances these students can have a voice, and become empowered. Children with SpLDs can articulate a relationship between the inclusivity of the teaching that they receive, and how this impacts their wellbeing. This finding extends work by Simmons, Graham and Thomas (2015), through engaged discussion and participatory reflection on real world experiences, as well as considering more ideal teaching. Psychometric wellbeing scores support this, correlating with expressed attitudes and experiences. Teacher interviews and classroom observations provide a pedagogic interpretation, which corroborates the nature of the relationship described by children, and helps to explain the routes of the children's feelings about their experiences. The active creative of the educational environment was one of the most commonly explored concepts discussed by participants. It represented a clear distinction between powerlessness and appropriate agency.

Both students and teachers lack agency to engage in the modern performative UK school. If pedagogues are able to take back control of their practice, and standardisation can be curtailed, then student experiences of structure in education can be positive, supportive, and used to reinforce social and community values. Community engagement and social capital from community resources can function as a psychotherapeutic tool if they are orchestrated as pedagogic interventions. The allegorical emancipation of education is of fundamental importance to lifelong wellbeing. If performative modern education in the UK continues to put the wellbeing of students with SpLDs at risk, then this ambition for teaching practice may lost in the burdensome efficiencies of detached uncritical teaching in this age of austerity.

For the sample in the present study, the Cluster 1 / Cluster 2 divide is evidence that inclusive teaching practices improve the wellbeing of students. Inclusive practice essentially involves listening and understanding, adaptive methods with adequate resources, and the school operating as a community to deliver social inclusion.

7.2 Limitations and Insights from the Study

A range of limitations were identified with the study, involving different aspects of the design, delivery, and nature of the findings.

The study went through several incarnations. The 'troubling' process is described in detail in Chapter 4. It is important to note that the experience of 'troubling' methodology was a positive one for the researcher, and served to enhance the quality and pertinence of the research. Reimagining the focus of the study brought the analytical processes of the researcher closer to the perspectives of the participants.

The limitations are best understood as implicating three areas:

- Limitations of the epistemological 'conclusiveness' of the findings
- Limitations to effect practice and policy change
- Limitations of the contribution to theory

Limitations stem from research decisions, practical happenings, and fundamental tenets of research in the field of education. Below limitations of the current study are explored. The three implicated areas are affected differently in each case.

7.2.1 Difficulties from the Sampling Method and Recruitment

The process of recruiting participants involved access through 'gatekeepers'. This was an anticipated ethical constraint that alone did not serve as a barrier to the success of the research. Gatekeepers in the case of all schools whose data was included in the final datasets, was a senior academic administrator, or a special educational needs coordinator (SENCO). Both roles embody specific perspectives and discursive constructions that affect the relationship between them and the participants in the study (both students and teachers). Having to hand over responsibility for generating the sample therefore presents challenges over validity. Gatekeepers were instructed how to construct the samples, however the opportune samples

were not perfectly representative of the definitions accordant to the study. One example of this is gender imbalance. In the schools sampled the ratio of gender was heavily skewed in favour of males. The practical implications of this are twofold: -

1) Limitations on the population descriptor did not match many females
2) Females who fit some aspects of the population descriptor differ in ways that the study does not encompass

Although gender imbalance applied across all participating schools, this model does not explain all of the sampling method issues. In a portion of the sample, recruitment had "over-selected" a few participants. The study was restrictive in sampling students who did not have a history of mental health problems or comorbid special educational needs which were outside of the remit of the study's expectations. This was a mistake. Firstly this meant that a small portion of the sample data had to be rejected. Thankfully this was only three student participants in the whole study. Secondly, this meant that the study did not have the opportunity to gather data on how inclusion occurred for the wide disparity of comorbid presentations of SpLDs. Although in hindsight it is challenging to define the correct limits for this aspect of sampling, as the study evolved (see Chapter 4 – Troubling Methodology) the depth of experience became more desirable.

The size of the student sample was adequate for use in quantitative statistical tests, and provided a considerable dataset for the IPA. The teacher participant sample had not had the initial constraints of serving for use in quantitative analysis, and therefore was not large. The limited teacher participant sample size meant that the role of teacher interview data was limited to that which it would have served under the original research design. It therefore served to support or interpret student and observational data. Although both student and teacher participant interview data was rich, and delivered adequate content for the IPA analyses, the teacher interview data could have been used to greater effect in exploring the relationship between teacher engagement with wellbeing and inclusion, with a larger sample.

7.2.2 Methodological Limitations and Insights

The study methodology evolved throughout its undertaking, which created some difficulties, as well as benefits. Adopting an IPA structure had limitations on the use of certain types of data. This decision was made partly because limiting certain types of data was appropriate because they did not provide conclusive analytic outcomes, and because IPA better suited exploring the research question.

The classroom observations were used to gather evidence to interpret the inclusivity of teaching methods. Observations produced data that was too varied. Although the researcher took great care in assuring that the observation scales were utilised in a uniform manner, the combination of subject specific pedagogies, and minimal opportunities to conduct observations meant that the data was inconsistent. As a result the researcher was limited to reporting this data in two collective comparative counts, as opposed to describing differences between qualities of inclusive practice for each school. This accounts for the minimal integration of observation data into the IPA analysis.

Observations were also limited by their number due to resources. It would have been beneficial to follow select students around for a day or more to gather richer data about their classroom activities, but this was not possible due to

a) There was only one researcher
b) Schools were keen to limit the time the study took in each school

Adopting the IPA methodology for the study changed the epistemic nature of conclusions that could be drawn from the study. The quantitative psychometric data on wellbeing collected in the study becomes limited in its usefulness. In the original methodology, a data triangulation placing parity on different forms of data was proposed. Under the IPA this data is limited to providing support for trends in the interview data. This meant that the study became limited as a theoretical contribution to the largely positivist psychology literature. The constructivist interpretation process of IPA does not generate conclusive proofs,

and therefore as a qualitative work the study had to address an audience for whom this approach to analysis was acceptable.

It would not be acceptable to treat either type of data in isolation because they both offer evidence that the interpretative logic of each does not represent a complete perspective. The benefit of this approach is the rich narrative themes that explore contextually situated phenomena.

The qualitative photography and interview process with student participants was successful in engaging students in discussing their wellbeing. Wellbeing is a sensitive topic, for which students may feel shy or be inexperienced discussing. The photographic 'gateway' approach helped to facilitate this. Visual methods have been used in psychotherapeutic practice with children, as a means to elicit discourse on difficult topics (Landgarten, 2013). Artistic expression provides both content for a psychotherapist to analyse, and a means of 'expanding' the vocabulary of the client beyond words (Wadeson, 2010). Phototherapy has been used with students (Goessling & Doyle, 2009; Goodhart et al., 2006) to examine perceptions and thought patterns, and aid students in communicating their needs. The methods in the present study serve a similar purpose for exploring situated wellbeing and inclusion in schools. The method could be employed in a targeted manner with select or individual students (Ginicola, Smith & Trzaska, 2012; Humphrey, 2003), or could contribute to larger class or school projects exploring emotional literacy (Weare, 2004). Students found the activity fun, engaging, and were able to provide meaningful content. Furthermore it was educational (learning to use camera, consider a photographic brief, etc.), and could be integrated into many academic subjects. Where teachers need to provide therapeutic wellbeing interventions, this may also provide a useful tool.

7.2.3 How the Research Question Constrained the Study

The research question was based upon a desire to define a relationship; however it was not experimentally operational. The intention was to incorporate qualitative data, without compromising the study's ability to

present positivist conclusions. As the study evolved, the research question was also limiting in its capacity to facilitate a narrative exploration. The IPA methodology occasionally struggled to uncover grounded experiential phenomena because the research tools remained structured by an unfocused research question. The study provides adequate evidence of the relationships between inclusive practice and wellbeing, from a student perspective. A wider frame of reference could have also discovered further contributing relationships. The study can be confident in its answer to the research question, but it cannot claim to have interpreted a *complete* explanation of the wellbeing of students with SpLDs. The population of the present study does not represent *all* variations and experiences of students with SpLDs in UK schools, and therefore the remit of the research question is constrained to comparing those experiences comprising the data. Therefore the findings can contribute to the research on case basis (Polit & Beck, 2010).

The imprecise nature of the research question created interview questions that in hindsight could have been better adapted to explore teaching interventions. Potential limitations to the implications for practice include

a) Definitions of practice described the researcher
b) Definitions of practice described by teacher participants
c) Researcher descriptions of classroom observations
d) Researcher interpretations of student participant descriptions

Although the multiplicity of sources is beneficial to explaining a collaborative interpretation of teaching practices, the inherent training and discursive makeup of the teacher and researcher professional perspectives, risks marginalising the significance of individual aspects of practice.

The research question introduces unnatural terminology into the study. Some participants actually expressed that they were not familiar with the terminologies of wellbeing and inclusion. Neither terminologies have a universally agreed definition, and therefore others interpreted these terminologies in

their own individual manner. Through the exploration of phenomena common operational vernacular expresses trends. Therefore this study acknowledges that the research question's impetus on *improving*, rather than defining is appropriate.

7.2.4 Lessons from a troubled analysis

As researchers reviewing the literature when exploring a topic, we are often faced with the question – *who is right?*. To the learned these questions can be of little consequence, and yet sometimes all researchers must enquire upon the nature of knowing. Education researchers have an established history of re-asking these questions (Ball, 2013; Siegel, 2012), and furthermore of defining when and why these questions are best asked. It is noted that those are not now, nor have they ever been the immediate question of the researcher; however questions over the application of research cannot avoid this. Therefore both navigating research enquiry, and enquiring (conducting research), are both uncertain, and interpretative.

'Troubling' changes outcomes. Perhaps equally relevant is that such limitations can also be liberations. The greatest lesson learnt from the present 'troubling' has been insight into 'the rules' of interpretation. 'The rules' are not fixed, are not written, and are not easily accessible, so it is perhaps a wonder that here the researcher chooses to refer to them as rules. Academic texts typically contain the necessary edification that instructs the reader how to understand the material. Interpretation is however much deeper and broader than this. Interpretation is also broader than meta-synthesis (the review and interpretation of the literature). Interpretation at its core has to do with a reflexive notion – justification (Novitz, 2000). In the experience of this researcher justification became a 'troubling' dilemma because of a desire to innovate, and also to expound a new synthesis or interpretation beyond what was contained in the data. A remark from one of the 'expert' researchers was that the conceptual goals of the study were possibly too grand. They justified this stating the presence of two extensive and undefined phenomena being central in the study – namely wellbeing and inclusion. Counter intuitively perhaps, the rather massive undertaking of a 3

year PhD was not the right place for this researcher to innovate. The ambition to do so is perhaps natural; however the researcher cannot ignore the comments made from the very beginning of the research that the design was unusual. A simplified or more traditional approach may have benefits when researching new topics to avoid scrutiny. So remember … 'the rules are da rules', but as limiting as that can sound, it is that way for a reason.

In terms of liberations, the personal and methodological exploration of 'being troubled' has been informative and essential as part of a wider shifting of paradigms. Asking for help and engaging in the research community was perhaps not this researcher's 'way of doing things', but the 'troubled' journey provided the grounds for a change in style. 'Troubling' has also taught this researcher that, in answer to the aforementioned dilemma – knowing who is 'right', that there can be something liberating about the 'limitations' that working with others can produce. This is because post-graduate research isn't about going it alone, but about learning how to research.

7.3 Contributions to Practice, Policy, and Theory

In this section the policy and practice implications of the findings from the study are examined. Consideration of language and presentation of findings is explored, and the needs of stakeholders are scrutinized. Finally policy and practice recommendations are presented, and opportunities for further research are discussed.

This thesis has brought together multiple data types and interwoven the perspectives and experiences of different stakeholders in the education process – namely focussed upon teachers and students, but considering the broader ramifications and interactions of other stakeholders including administrators and policy makers, parents and families, and teacher training institutions such as universities. Although the broad research question poses the question of how *teaching methods* can improve the wellbeing being of students with SpLDs, the study has proposed a rethink of how we understand the term *teaching methods*, and structural changes to policy and practice that liberate teachers from the mere performance of methods.

The data gathered in this study contains policy proposals from both student and teacher participants. Other findings provide strong supportive evidence for other policy approaches explored in the literature. Participants have framed their contributions to the study in terms of transformational suggestions and by highlighting policies and practices which they believed to be insufficient. The researcher has chosen to propose specific policy and practice adaptations in order to honour their responsibility to the emancipation of the needs of the participants.

The reconsiderations suggested would not only affect individual stakeholder groups operating differently, but also the way in which stakeholder groups relate and operate together. Furthermore this study suggests that dialogue and discussion on a local and ongoing basis between stakeholder groups is an essential aspect of the project. Translating the recombinant discursive epistemological pluralism - the cohesive axiom of the relationships in the study, does not easily translate into practically based instruction for

stakeholders to heed. Therefore dialogue and discussion underpinning the nature of the proposed reconsiderations must be structured in reference to, but not replicate, the complexity of the theory. Fischer (2009) describes how "usable knowledge" enables practitioners to address complex theories without traversing entangled concepts. Rappolt-Schlichtmann, Ayoub and Gravel (2009) argues that childhood development must be conceived using a biopsychosocial model, and that usable knowledge for practitioners has to address all aspects of this complex model, and therefore training must.

7.3.1 Contributions to Stakeholders

The major stakeholders in the present study includes school staff with safeguarding responsibilities, school administrators, SENCOs, teachers, teaching assistants, students, and parents. These stakeholders are listed structurally. Below the skillsets and needs of these different stakeholder groups are explored, in order for them to take ownership of the proposed program (Clift & Jensen, 2005). Within the diversity of the identified stakeholder groups, there are established normative behaviours, attitudes, and identities. Furthermore there are numerous groups who are influential to the stakeholders, most pertinently academics. Forming a distinctive policy agenda for the program that addresses all of these needs from the nature of the findings of the current study has been deemed impossible. This is because the attention of the policy agenda is ultimately targeted in the need for further opportunities for the shaping of practice through stakeholders who have not had their voice prioritised. Thus the challenge to the academic and the pedagogic cannot be delivered in the format to which they are most accustomed to adapting their practice through policy guidance – i.e. the evident performative delivery.

Most significantly staff with safeguarding responsibilities comes first. This actually encompasses all school staff, as this denotes the importance of whole school responsibility for student wellbeing and an inclusive ethos. This stakeholder group also includes some individuals with policy making roles. Governors, academy chain leaders, and others also have responsibility to safeguarding in terms of the policies they put in place.

Safeguarding / health and safety / etc. are examples of broad ethea which impact policy construction throughout schools. It is appropriate to consider the current diverse knowledge and awareness of the concepts of wellbeing and inclusion for the broad range of individuals in this stakeholder group. Within the stakeholder group there are numerous professional roles, with disparate responsibilities and requirements for monitoring and conformation to standards.

Delivery is the responsibility of other more specific stakeholder groups; however this all-encompassing stakeholder group must take ownership of the core ethos and values. This study is supported by the literature in suggesting that re-education in terminology is an essential first step. Specific models and relationships need become engrained in policy terminology to filter down, and comprehension of the indicators the terminology refers to needs to be universally understood. Specific areas to be addressed include the pathways through which vulnerability is created in the classroom, the need for interventions to transfer a positive inclusive social ethos, and the need for targets to reflect actual student perspectives, rather than performative standardised assessments.

Currently there is evidence that rather than adjusting the presentation of this study's policies to suit the language and comprehension of this stakeholder group, instead institutional re-education is appropriate to bring everyone stakeholder in this group up to the same improved standard. In order to encourage this engagement and make the change sustainable, it is also important that integration of these values occurs in an open policy setting, where this diverse stakeholder group can discuss the ethos and policies, rather than simply a top down implementation. This is because unlike numerically target driven performance which is easily measured, this program calls for a new engagement, which will require commitment and enthusiasm (Gross, 2015).

School administrators will have a responsibility for monitoring staff delivery, and ensuring the aforementioned training standards are sustained. This stakeholder group may have the most significant role in altering the ethos and overall success of a policy program such as this (Lashley, 2007; Riehl, 2000). School administrators set the standards their staff must achieve, and work between different departments

– which other staff often do not. This may put these stakeholders in the position of having to work on interdisciplinary pedagogy in conjunction with SENCOs and others. Although many school administrators are competent teachers, they may not routinely engage with pedagogic terminology or keep up with the latest teaching tools, etc. It is essential therefore that as this stakeholder group will be required to lead on change, that the policies address and explain any required specific teaching practices. Furthermore there must be a strong emphasis on the vision of the program. School administrators must be inspired to facilitate the additional resources required. It is essential the policies can instil, and even challenge pre-conceptions from these stakeholders. After all this stakeholder group also has the power to impede as well as support to the program (Gross, 2015).

This study has demonstrated that SENCOs are well positioned within schools to access and support students with SpLDs and other SEND support needs. This study suggests that although SENCO trained staff are motivated to support students with SpLDs, there is variation in the approaches and attitudes to inclusion. Because SENCOs can introduce and oversee transformative inclusive pedagogy development, SENCOs need to be trained in the ethos and responsibilities of schools to facilitate the type of inclusive education that will deliver improved wellbeing outcomes. SENCO's feature responsibilities differ from that of school administrator where SENCOs will also need to actively assess the student outcomes, and direct teaching interventions.

Teachers and teaching assistants will require some retraining in the way they undertake their day to day practice. The primary change beyond the attitudinal adjustments already discussed will be in the use of goal structures and competition within classroom activities. Furthermore teachers may need further support in developing assessment methods which can be operated more inclusively. For teachers and teaching assistants introducing these new approaches will represent a radical change to their established working practices. It is essential that the language of policies and practice guidance addresses alternative working practices, rather than relying on theoretical constructs. Teaching assistants often provide more assistance than is appropriate, and may not aptly facilitate the engagement of the students that they

support. Although teaching assistants may not be required under the proposed program, teaching assistants will none-the-less need guidance on the remit of their role. Specifically providing isolated support must no longer be part of their role. Similarly for teachers, classroom management and use of resources will need to be redesigned to facilitate the necessary changes.

Teachers and teaching assistants will have particular responsibility for the psychotherapeutic aspects of the program. These stakeholder groups will require not only training about the ethos, enhanced training about the practice, and to alter their working practices, but also to develop a new system for managing information about each student's psychotherapeutic needs. Education health and care plans (EHCPs) provide a good basis for sharing information with various professionals, and for outlining the roles and responsibilities for various multidisciplinary interventions. Engaging as many staff as possible in the local development these systems should also better facilitate them taking 'ownership' of the program and committing them to it (Cliff & Jensen, 2005).

The current policy environment essentially rewards performativity in teaching practice, and the mantle of responsibility is taken upon by a select few individuals who choose to identify with a more engaged and inclusive form of practice. Addressing the policy gap is therefore the first issue to address. However, this thesis is far from unique in proposing the specific policy implementations suggested. As this thesis has intended to do, problematizing the current state from the perspectives of research, policy, practice, and subject, is an essential first step in challenging such engrained structural practices (Henkel, 2005). The engaged nature of practice that this thesis calls for enters the realm of destabilising current roles and values. Many academics and teacher practitioners (pedagogues) are also operating beyond their boundaries (Henkel, 2005). Practitioner lead research, including participation action research (Bergold & Thomas, 2012), is one good example of this. Furthermore in the present study teacher participants were engaged in research and data collection as part of their evolved hybridised practice seeking to support students with SpLDs. Some teacher participants and SENCOs also operated a very critical and therapeutic teaching practice.

This study has demonstrated that an exam based performative culture in schools does *actual* psychological harm to students that can have pervasive lifelong negative psychosocial ramifications. The importance of the interconnection of inclusivity and wellbeing must not be allowed to be absent in these schools. The value of inclusivity does operate from a child's perspective within a world view constrained by local cultures. Therefore it is necessary to allow each school to develop its own delivery of the broader policy outline recommended in this thesis.

Appendix 8.7.1 contains summarised policy proposals. These are targeted key stakeholders. Appendix 8.7.2 contains summarised practice proposals targeted at teachers and teaching assistants.

7.3.2 Key Contributions to Knowledge

This study has benefited from taking a different approach to much other research into students with SpLDs. The study explores motivations and attitudes in an in depth manner, and the findings demonstrate high internal consistency between data types and sources. This study has demonstrated due course for teachers and policy makers to refocus their efforts and attention on structuring learning modalities around wellbeing, as part of an inclusive agenda. The study provides a qualitative perspective grounded in children's perspectives for the relationship between wellbeing and inclusive teaching practice. It echoes familiar voices that raise concern about wellbeing among students with SpLDs, but also offers a unique description of *how* wellbeing and inclusion have the same trajectory for students with SpLDs.

The following points outline some of the key contributions to academic knowledge from this study. Although not all of the more specific findings from the present study can be generalised from, the following points justify generalisation, on a case basis (Firestone, 1993; Polit & Beck, 2010; Denzin, 1983). There is wisdom in the depth of the information and perspectives gathered from the schools represented as different case scenarios (Firestone, 1993).

- The power for teachers to intervene and mitigate students' social experiences of school power is not adequately utilised, and that this resulted in vulnerability and bullying

- Teacher engagement and support is essential for students with SpLD, and that attention needs to be critical and individualised, in order for students to develop positive self-concept in education
- Students with SpLDs require academic support, in order to feel in control of themselves or their environment. This support is pivotal to them feeling fairly treated
- Institutional/structural power currently stops inclusion being enacted for students with SpLDs
- Children with SpLDs can articulate a relationship between the inclusivity of the teaching that they receive, and how this impacts their wellbeing
- Students with SpLDs desire teaching practices, a learning environment, and access to learning resources that are described in the literature as inclusive, as a means to improve their wellbeing
- Inclusive practice predicts positive wellbeing, beyond the impact of extraneous factors such as mere levels of attention from teachers
- This justifies a new integrated juxtaposition of the terminologies for the literature (inclusion/wellbeing)

7.4 Recommendations for Future Research

This study has not completely answered the research question, nor has it satisfied the full array of questions that it has uncovered in its undertaking. The first obvious next step would be to extend the current study to include a larger sample of both students and particularly teachers. This would give greater statistical power to psychometric tests, and facilitate the construction of further numerical modelling based on portions of the sample. It would however not be desirable to lose the multi epistemological framework of the present study, and therefore in extending the present study the potential for increasing the modalities of data collection increases.

A second step for extending the basis of the current study would be to apply to principles of the study to a longitudinal participatory action research study. The teachers, SENCOs, and other stakeholder groups demonstrated throughout the study their capacity to engage with the research process as active members. The primary policy and practice recommendation from the present study is for teachers to be involved in greater critical engagement with their students. These two emergent goals are compatible with participation action research designs; however the scope of such as study would require considerable resources. Such a project may ultimately be hard to deliver, or require a rare opportunity for school wide development, such as the transformation of a school into an academy.

Extending the use of photographic or other multimedia data capture methods is highly desirable when researching school inclusivity. The current study has successfully used this approach to demonstrate the legitimacy of student participants' voices in the research. This ultimately led to the conclusion that students with SpLDs are capable of explaining how inclusive practices impact their wellbeing. These methods could be reused and extended to focus on more specific details about the school experience, and tackle issues for which adult perspectives sometimes struggle to solve – such as bullying. The importance of these methods in allowing students to engage creatively and capture aspects of experience not easily put into words means they represent an approach to understanding students which is contrary to the

performative assessment based ideology which currently dominates the intellectualism agenda in schools. Using these research methods may also have a positive effect on participants, which could also be explored.

This study has demonstrated the need for further research into aspects of experience that were revealed through discussion with participants. These could include:

1) How do teachers understand vulnerability? Does teacher training adequately address how to identify and support vulnerable students? Are children becoming increasingly vulnerable in the performative education culture?
2) Are Academy schools improving student wellbeing? What is the extent of the variation? Are there causes other than those relating to inclusion and students with SpLDs?

Future research should aim to further integrate the psychotherapeutic epistemology into collaborative and participatory research constructions to explore the positive impact of engaged pedagogy. The notion of inclusion continues to warrant research attention, and the findings and methods from this study offer many possibilities for concurrently developing research and practice through the use of complex epistemological frameworks.

7.5 Concluding Remarks

This study began with the gloomy premise that students with SpLDs often experienced reduced wellbeing. This study has demonstrated that the relationship behind this is multifaceted and routed in the culture, attitudes, practices and beliefs of teachers and students.

Within the small sample used, starkly different experiences could be related to policy and practice, and thankfully this highlighted that positive outcomes were possible. It appears to be necessary to interrupt the downward digression in the division of labours of the performative education system. To improve

schools need to recognise and facilitate practice through community resources and individual psychotherapeutic approaches, in order to focus on the subjects of the education space – the students.

I have been grateful to have the opportunity to conduct this research which has opened my eyes to the importance of increasing complex multidisciplinary knowledge constructions or the benefit of wellbeing and personal development. This also affirms the essential continuation of the diversification and exploration of the teacher as pedagogue, researcher, and human being.

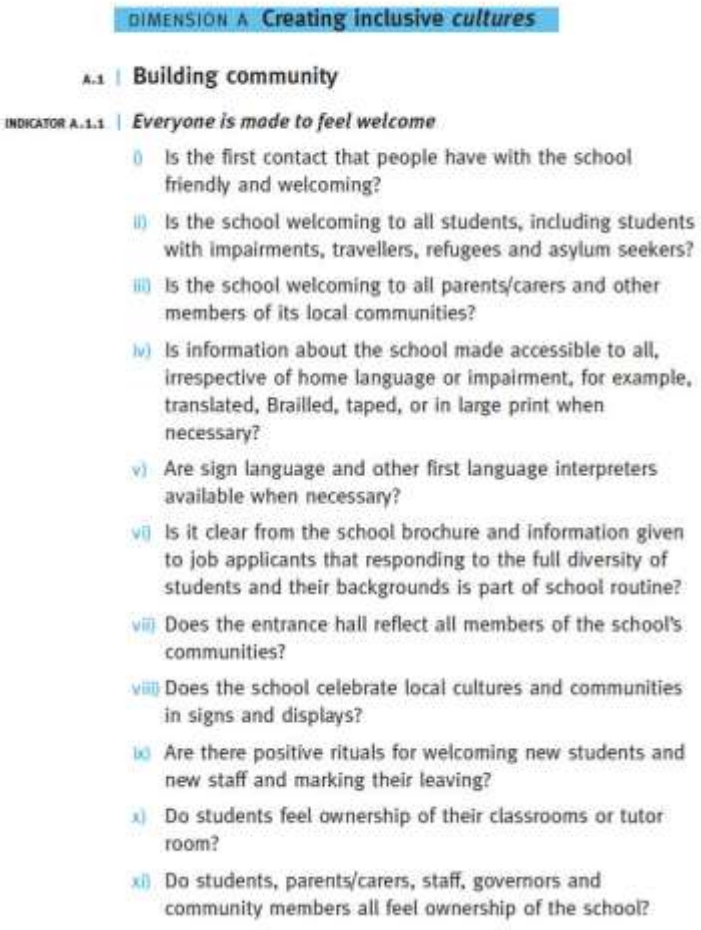
8 . Appendix

This section contains appendix documents related to the study. Appendices are sequentially organised as they relate to the thesis, and are grouped relative to the chapter they are first referenced within. Appendices include observational schedules, interview questions, ethics documents,

8.3 Chapter 3 Appendices

8.3.1 Index for Inclusion – Indicators and Questions

Below is an excerpt from the Index for Inclusion (Booth & Ainscow, 2011, p.42). It lists exploratory questions relating to indicators of inclusive education, which were used in the present study as a partial basis for the Secondary Classroom Inclusive Framework (SCIF) *[see appendix 8.4.2]*.



DIMENSION A **Creating inclusive *cultures***

A.1 | **Building community**

INDICATOR A.1.1 | ***Everyone is made to feel welcome***

i) Is the first contact that people have with the school friendly and welcoming?

ii) Is the school welcoming to all students, including students with impairments, travellers, refugees and asylum seekers?

iii) Is the school welcoming to all parents/carers and other members of its local communities?

iv) Is information about the school made accessible to all, irrespective of home language or impairment, for example, translated, Brailled, taped, or in large print when necessary?

v) Are sign language and other first language interpreters available when necessary?

vi) Is it clear from the school brochure and information given to job applicants that responding to the full diversity of students and their backgrounds is part of school routine?

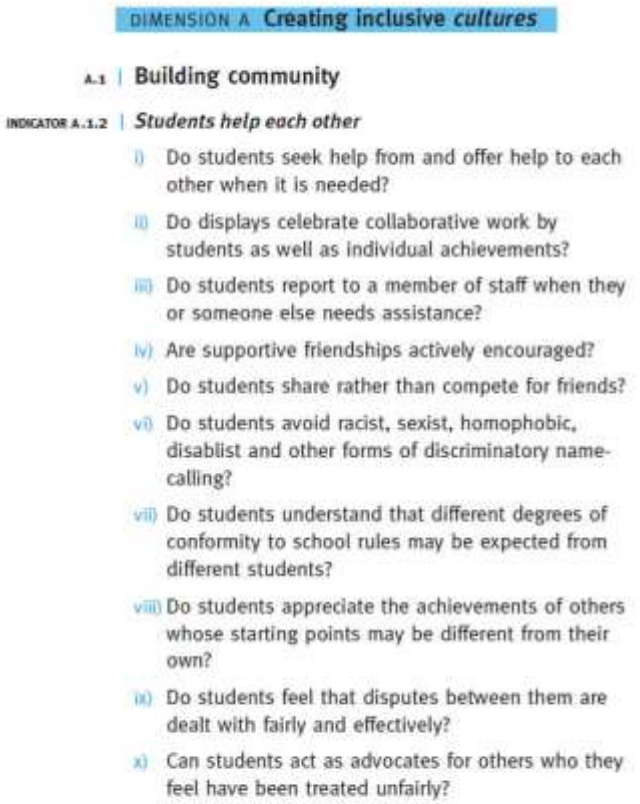
vii) Does the entrance hall reflect all members of the school's communities?

viii) Does the school celebrate local cultures and communities in signs and displays?

ix) Are there positive rituals for welcoming new students and new staff and marking their leaving?

x) Do students feel ownership of their classrooms or tutor room?

xi) Do students, parents/carers, staff, governors and community members all feel ownership of the school?



DIMENSION A **Creating inclusive *cultures***

A.1 | **Building community**

INDICATOR A.1.2 | ***Students help each other***

i) Do students seek help from and offer help to each other when it is needed?

ii) Do displays celebrate collaborative work by students as well as individual achievements?

iii) Do students report to a member of staff when they or someone else needs assistance?

iv) Are supportive friendships actively encouraged?

v) Do students share rather than compete for friends?

vi) Do students avoid racist, sexist, homophobic, disablist and other forms of discriminatory name-calling?

vii) Do students understand that different degrees of conformity to school rules may be expected from different students?

viii) Do students appreciate the achievements of others whose starting points may be different from their own?

ix) Do students feel that disputes between them are dealt with fairly and effectively?

x) Can students act as advocates for others who they feel have been treated unfairly?

(Booth and Ainscow, 2011)

DIMENSION A **Creating inclusive *cultures***

A.1 | **Building community**

INDICATOR A.1.3 | ***Staff collaborate with each other***

i) Do staff treat each other with respect irrespective of their roles in the school?
ii) Do staff treat each other with respect irrespective of their gender?
iii) Do staff treat each other with respect irrespective of their class or ethnic background?
iv) Are all staff invited to staff meetings?
v) Do all staff attend meetings?
vi) Is there wide participation in meetings?
vii) Are all teachers and classroom assistants involved in curriculum planning and review?
viii) Is teamwork between staff a model for the collaboration of students?
ix) Do staff know who to turn to with a problem?
x) Do staff feel comfortable about discussing problems in their work?
xi) Are regular supply staff encouraged to be actively involved in the life of the school?
xii) Are all staff involved in drawing up priorities for school development?
xiii) Do all staff feel ownership of the school development plan?

DIMENSION A **Creating inclusive *cultures***

A.1 | **Building community**

INDICATOR A.1.4 | ***Staff and students treat one another with respect***

i) Do staff address all students respectfully, by the name they wish to be called, with the correct pronunciation?
ii) Do students treat all staff with respect irrespective of their status?
iii) Are the opinions of students sought about how the school might be improved?
iv) Do the views of students make a difference to what happens in school?
v) Do students have particular opportunities to discuss school matters?
vi) Do students help staff when asked?
vii) Do students offer help when they see it is needed?
viii) Do staff and students look after the physical environment of the school?
ix) Do students know who to see when they have a problem?
x) Are students confident that their difficulties will be dealt with effectively?

DIMENSION A **Creating inclusive *cultures***

A.1 | **Building community**

INDICATOR A.1.5 | ***There is a partnership between staff and parents/carers***

i) Do parents/carers and staff respect each other?
ii) Do parents/carers feel that there is good communication with staff?
iii) Are all parents/carers well informed about school policies and practices?
iv) Are parents/carers aware of the priorities in the school development plan?
v) Are all parents/carers given an opportunity to be involved in decisions made about the school?
vi) Are the fears that some parents/carers have about coming into school and meeting teachers, recognised and steps taken to overcome them?
vii) Are there a variety of opportunities for parents/carers to become involved in the school?
viii) Are there a variety of occasions when parents/carers can discuss the progress of, and concerns about, their children?
ix) Are the different contributions that parents/carers can make to the school equally appreciated?
x) Do staff value the knowledge that parents/carers have about their children?
xi) Do staff encourage the involvement of all parents/carers in their children's learning?
xii) Are parents/carers clear about what they can do to support their children's learning at home?
xiii) Do all parents/carers feel that their children are valued by the school?
xiv) Do all parents/carers feel that their concerns are taken seriously by the school?

DIMENSION A **Creating inclusive *cultures***

A.1 | **Building community**

INDICATOR A.1.6 | ***Staff and governors work well together***

i) Do staff understand the roles and responsibilities of the governors?
ii) Do governors understand the organisational structure of the school and the responsibilities of staff?
iii) Are governors welcome to contribute to the work of the school at any time?
iv) Are the skills and knowledge of governors known and valued?
v) Does the composition of the governing body reflect the school's local communities?
vi) Are governors fully informed about school policies?
vii) Do governors and staff agree about what governors can contribute to the school?
viii) Do governors feel that their contribution is valued irrespective of their status?
ix) Do governors share in-service education opportunities with staff?
x) Do staff and governors share an approach to students categorised as 'having special educational needs'?
xi) Do staff and governors share a view about the identification of students who experience difficulties and the way support should be provided?

8.3.1 (… continued) Index for Inclusion – Indicators and Questions

DIMENSION A **Creating inclusive *cultures***

A.1 | **Building community**

INDICATOR A.1.7 | ***All local communities are involved in the school***

i) Does the school involve local communities, such as elderly people and the variety of ethnic groups, in activities in the school?

ii) Is the school involved in activities in the local communities?

iii) Do members of local communities share facilities with staff and students such as the library, hall and canteen?

iv) Do communities participate equally in the school, irrespective of their class, religious or ethnic background?

v) Are all sections of local communities seen as a resource for the school?

vi) Do staff and governors seek the views of local community members about the school?

vii) Do the views of members of local communities affect school policies?

viii) Is there a positive view of the school within the local communities?

ix) Does the school encourage applications for work in the school from the local communities?

DIMENSION A **Creating inclusive *cultures***

A.2 | **Establishing inclusive values**

INDICATOR A.2.1 | ***There are high expectations for all students***

i) Does every student feel that they attend a school in which the highest achievements are possible?

ii) Are all students encouraged to have high aspirations about their learning?

iii) Are all students treated as if there is no ceiling to their achievements?

iv) Do staff avoid viewing students as having a fixed ability based on their current achievements?

v) Are students entered for public examinations when they are ready rather than at a particular age?

vi) Are all students encouraged to take pride in their own achievements?

vii) Are all students encouraged to appreciate the achievements of others?

viii) Do staff attempt to counter negative views of students who are keen and enthusiastic or attain highly in lessons?

ix) Do staff attempt to counter negative views of students who find lessons difficult?

x) Do staff attempt to counter the derogatory use of labels of low achievement?

xi) Is there an attempt to address the fear of failure of some students?

xii) Do staff avoid linking the potential achievement of one student to those of a sibling or another student from their area?

DIMENSION A **Creating inclusive *cultures***

A.2 | **Establishing inclusive values**

INDICATOR A.2.2 | ***Staff, governors, students and parents/carers share a philosophy of inclusion***

i) Is building a supportive school community seen to be as important as raising academic achievement?

ii) Is fostering collaboration seen to be as important as encouraging independence?

iii) Is there an emphasis on the appreciation of difference rather than conformity to a single 'normality'?

iv) Is diversity seen as a rich resource to support learning rather than as a problem?

v) Is there a shared resolve to minimise inequalities of opportunity in the school?

vi) Is there a shared wish to accept students from the local communities, irrespective of background, attainment and impairment?

vii) Are attitudes about the limits to inclusion challenged, such as for students with severe impairments?

viii) Is there a shared understanding that inclusion is about increasing participation in, as well as access to, the school?

ix) Is exclusion understood as a process that takes place in staffrooms, classrooms and playgrounds and may end in separation from the school?

x) Do all members of the school take responsibility for making the school more inclusive?

DIMENSION A **Creating inclusive *cultures***

A.2 | **Establishing inclusive values**

INDICATOR A.2.3 | ***Students are equally valued***

i) Is a variety of backgrounds and home languages seen to make a positive contribution to school life?

ii) Are regional accents and dialects seen to enrich the school and society?

iii) Are differences in family structure acknowledged and appreciated?

iv) Are parents/carers regarded as equally valuable to the school, irrespective of the status of their work or whether they are employed or unemployed?

v) Are students and staff with impairments as welcomed into the school as those without impairments?

vi) Are higher and lower attaining students valued equally?

vii) Is the work of all students displayed within the school and classrooms?

viii) Does the reporting of achievements within and beyond the school include all students?

ix) Do all students leave secondary school with a nationally recognised accreditation?

x) Are the achievements of boys and girls given equal support and prominence?

8.3.1 (… continued) Index for Inclusion – Indicators and Questions

DIMENSION A **Creating inclusive *cultures***

A.2 | **Establishing inclusive values**

INDICATOR A.2.4 | ***Staff and students treat one another as human beings as well as occupants of a 'role'***

i) Is every student known well by some members of staff?
ii) Do students feel that teachers like them?
iii) Are all members of the school regarded as both learners and teachers?
iv) Do staff feel valued and supported?
v) Are significant events, such as births, deaths and illnesses, given the appropriate acknowledgement?
vi) Is it recognised that everyone, not just members of 'ethnic minorities', has a culture or cultures?
vii) Can students (and staff) be supported to acknowledge that they are hurt, depressed or angry on a particular day?
viii) Is it accepted that staff can express negative personal feelings about students in private as a way of overcoming them?
ix) Do staff avoid demonising particular students?
x) Are basic facilities such as toilets, showers and lockers, kept in good order?
xi) Are the wishes for modesty of students respected in arrangements for showers or swimming?

DIMENSION A **Creating inclusive *cultures***

A.2 | **Establishing inclusive values**

INDICATOR A.2.5 | ***Staff seek to remove barriers to learning and participation in all aspects of the school***

i) Do staff understand that they can make a difference to the barriers to learning and participation experienced by students?
ii) Are barriers to learning and participation seen to arise in a relationship between students and their teaching and learning environment?
iii) Is the teaching and learning environment understood to include student and staff relationships, buildings, cultures, policies, curricula and teaching approaches?
iv) Do staff avoid seeing barriers to learning and participation as produced by deficiencies or impairments in students?
v) Do staff and students understand that policies and practices must reflect the diversity of students within the school?
vi) Are the barriers that arise through differences between school and home cultures recognised and countered?
vii) Is it understood that anyone can experience barriers to learning and participation?
viii) Do staff avoid labelling children according to notions of ability?
ix) Is there an understanding of the way categorisation of students as 'having special educational needs' can lead to their devaluation and separation?
x) Do staff avoid contrasting mainstream and 'special needs' students?

DIMENSION A **Creating inclusive *cultures***

A.2 | **Establishing inclusive values**

INDICATOR A.2.6 | ***The school strives to minimise all forms of discrimination***

i) Is there recognition of the existence of institutional discrimination and the need to minimise all forms of it?
ii) Do staff and students understand the origins of discrimination in intolerance to difference?
iii) Is attention paid to the exclusionary pressures on ethnic minority students and the way intolerance to difference may be interpreted as racism?
iv) Is it recognised that all cultures and religions encompass a range of views and degrees of observance?
v) Do staff avoid stereotyped roles for students in school productions (for example according to type of hair or skin colour)?
vi) Is there respect for teachers and students irrespective of their age?
vii) Are the cultures of the school equally supportive of boys and girls?
viii) Do staff and students avoid gender stereotyping in expectations about achievement, student futures or in help with tasks, such as refreshments or technical support?
ix) Do staff avoid valuing middle class above working class backgrounds and interests?
x) Are gay and lesbian people valued by the school as part of human diversity?
xi) Do staff see disability as created when people with impairments encounter negative attitudes and institutional barriers?
xii) Are stereotyped views of bodily perfection challenged?
xiii) Is there recognition that knowledge about their impairments makes a limited contribution to planning education for students?
xiv) Do staff attempt to counter stereotyped attitudes towards people with impairments when they are seen, for example, as objects of pity or heroic battlers against adversity?
xv) Is the exclusion of students with severe impairments understood to reflect limitations of attitude and policy more than practical difficulties?

DIMENSION B **Producing inclusive *policies***

B.1 | **Developing the school for all**

INDICATOR B.1.1 | ***Staff appointments and promotions are fair***

i) Are opportunities for promotion seen to be open to all who are eligible, inside and outside the school?
ii) Do the promoted posts reflect the balance of genders and backgrounds of staff in the school?
iii) Does the composition of teaching and non-teaching staff reflect the communities in the school locality?
iv) Is there a clear strategy for removing barriers to the appointment of staff with impairments?
v) Do posts of higher status disproportionately favour particular sections of the community?
vi) Has the school established staffing equality targets?
vii) Is the valuing of diversity in students an essential criterion for the appointment of staff?
viii) Are temporary replacements found for absent support staff as well as classroom and subject teachers?

8.3.1 (… continued) Index for Inclusion – Indicators and Questions

DIMENSION B **Producing inclusive *policies***

B.1 | **Developing the school for all**

INDICATOR B.1.2 | ***All new staff are helped to settle into the school***

i) Does the school recognise the difficulties that new staff may have in settling into a new job in what may be a new locality?

ii) Do longer serving staff avoid making new staff feel outsiders, for example by the use of a 'we' or an 'us' which excludes them?

iii) Does every new member of staff have a mentor who is genuinely interested in helping him or her to settle into the school?

iv) Does the school make new staff feel that the experience and knowledge they bring to the school is valued?

v) Are there opportunities for all staff, including new staff, to share their knowledge and expertise?

vi) Are new staff provided with the basic information they need about the school?

vii) Are new staff asked what additional information they need, and is it provided?

viii) Are the observations about the school of new staff sought and valued for the fresh insights that they may contain?

DIMENSION B **Producing inclusive *policies***

B.1 | **Developing the school for all**

INDICATOR B.1.3 | ***The school seeks to admit all students from its locality***

i) Are all students from the locality encouraged to attend the school irrespective of attainment or impairment?

ii) Is the inclusion of all students from the locality publicised as school policy?

iii) Does the school seek to overcome barriers to participation for the variety of ethnic groups in the locality?

iv) Are traveller children and young people who visit the area actively welcomed to the school?

v) Are students from the locality, currently in special schools, actively encouraged to attend the school?

vi) Is membership of the school equally unconditional for all students?

vii) Is there an increase in the proportion of students from the locality included within the school?

viii) Is there an increase in the diversity of students from the locality included in the school?

DIMENSION B **Producing inclusive *policies***

B.1 | **Developing the school for all**

INDICATOR B.1.4 | ***The school makes its buildings physically accessible to all people***

i) Are the needs of deaf, blind and partially sighted people, as well as people with physical impairments considered in making the buildings accessible?

ii) Is the school concerned with the accessibility of all aspects of the school building and grounds, including classrooms, corridors, toilets, gardens, playgrounds, canteen and displays?

iii) Are organisations of disabled people consulted about the accessibility of the school?

iv) Is disabled access part of the building improvement plan?

v) Does the school pay attention to the requirement of the Special Educational Needs and Disability Act 2001 to make progress each year on the accessibility of the school?

vi) Is accessibility seen as about disabled staff, governors, parents/carers and other members of the community, as well as students?

vii) Are projects concerned with improving the accessibility of the school buildings part of the school curriculum?

DIMENSION B **Producing inclusive *policies***

B.1 | **Developing the school for all**

INDICATOR B.1.5 | ***All new students are helped to settle into the school***

i) Does the school have an induction programme for students?

ii) Does the induction programme work well for students and their families whether they join at the start of the school year or some other time?

iii) Is information available for parents/carers on the national and local education system as well as about the school?

iv) Does the induction programme take into account student differences in attainment and home language?

v) Are new students paired with more experienced students when they first enter the school?

vi) Are steps taken to find out the extent to which new students feel at home in the school after a few weeks?

vii) Is there support for students who have difficulty memorising the building layout, particularly when they first join the school?

viii) Are new students clear about who to see if they experience difficulties?

ix) When students are due to transfer from one school to another, do staff in each school collaborate to ease the change?

x) Are steps taken to familiarise students with the school before they transfer from pre-school or primary school?

8.3.1 (… continued) Index for Inclusion – Indicators and Questions

DIMENSION B **Producing inclusive *policies***

B.1 | Developing the school for all

INDICATOR B.1.6 | ***The school arranges teaching groups so that all students are valued***

i) Are teaching groups treated fairly in the use of facilities, location of teaching rooms, allocation of teaching staff and staff cover?

ii) Do staff consider the opportunities created for students to teach and learn from each other in diverse groups?

iii) In planning teaching groups, is attention paid to friendships and the presence of others who speak the same languages?

iv) Is there an attempt to minimise the organisation of teaching groups according to levels of attainment or impairment?

v) Where setting occurs, are there plans to prevent negative effects, such as disaffection in lower sets?

vi) Where setting occurs, do the arrangements give students an equal opportunity to move between sets?

vii) Are seating arrangements within classes changed as necessary to promote social cohesion between boys and girls and the variety of ethnic groups in the school?

viii) Are seating arrangements within classes changed as necessary to improve learning opportunities for students?

ix) Are schools mindful of the legal obligation to educate together students who do and do not experience difficulties in learning?

x) Where there is a large imbalance of girls and boys in a particular year's intake, do schools consider establishing some single-sex classes?

xi) Do schools avoid identifying and grouping a disproportionate number of boys as low attainers or as requiring an alternative curriculum?

xii) Do schools avoid restricting the curriculum (such as omitting a foreign language) for students who are given additional literacy support?

xiii) Where there are option choices, are all students allowed to make real choices?

DIMENSION B **Producing inclusive *policies***

B.2 | Organising support for diversity

INDICATOR B.2.1 | ***All forms of support are co-ordinated***

i) Are all support policies co-ordinated in a strategy for increasing the capacity of the school to respond to diversity?

ii) Is the co-ordination of support given high status in the school and led by a senior member of staff?

iii) Are support policies directed at preventing barriers to learning and participation for students?

iv) Is there an overall inclusive support policy which is clear to all within the school?

v) Is the support policy made clear to those from outside the school who support learning within it?

vi) Is there a clear plan for the way external support services can contribute to the inclusive development of cultures, policies and practices?

vii) Are staff aware of all the services that can support the development of learning and participation in the school?

viii) Is there co-ordination of all initiatives, such as healthy schools or those aimed at high attaining students, so that they support the inclusive development of the school?

ix) Are those offering support asked to co-ordinate their efforts with other overlapping initiatives?

x) Are support policies guided by what is best for students rather than the maintenance of professional territories?

DIMENSION B **Producing inclusive *policies***

B.2 | Organising support for diversity

INDICATOR B.2.2 | ***Staff development activities help staff to respond to student diversity***

i) Do all curriculum development activities address the participation of students differing in background, experience, attainment or impairment?

ii) Do all curriculum development activities address the reduction of barriers to learning and participation?

iii) Do staff development activities support staff in working effectively together in classrooms?

iv) Is partnership teaching, followed by shared review, used to support teachers to respond to student diversity?

v) Do staff observe each other's lessons in order to reflect on the perspectives of students?

vi) Do staff receive training in devising and managing collaborative learning activities?

vii) Are there shared opportunities for teachers and classroom assistants to develop more effective collaboration?

viii) Are there opportunities for staff and students to learn about peer tutoring?

ix) Do teaching and support staff learn about using technology to support learning (such as cameras, television, video, overhead projector, tape-recorders, computers/Internet)?

x) Do staff explore ways of reducing disaffection by increasing the engagement of students in curricula?

xi) Is disability equality education provided for all staff?

xii) Do all staff learn how to counter bullying, including racism, sexism and homophobia?

xiii) Do staff and governors take responsibility for assessing their own learning needs?

DIMENSION B **Producing inclusive *policies***

B.2 | Organising support for diversity

INDICATOR B.2.3 | ***'Special educational needs' policies are inclusion policies***

i) Is there an attempt to minimise the categorisation of students as 'having special educational needs'?

ii) Does the school avoid the disproportionate categorisation of boys as 'having special educational needs'?

iii) Does the school avoid the disproportionate categorisation of particular ethnic groups as 'having special educational needs'?

iv) Does the school call its co-ordinator of support a learning support, learning development or inclusion co-ordinator, rather than a 'special educational needs co-ordinator'?

v) Are students who are categorised as 'having special educational needs' seen as individuals with differing interests, knowledge and skills rather than as part of a homogeneous group?

vi) Are the attempts to remove barriers to learning and participation of one student seen as opportunities for improving the classroom experiences of all students?

vii) Is support seen as an entitlement for those students who need it rather than as a special addition to their education?

viii) Are the details of an entitlement to support made public to students and parents/carers and included within the school brochure?

ix) Where possible, is support provided without recourse to formal assessment procedures?

x) Are 'special needs' policies aimed at increasing learning and participation and minimising exclusion?

xi) Is there an attempt to minimise the withdrawal of students for support outside their mainstream lessons?

8.3.1 (… continued) Index for Inclusion – Indicators and Questions

DIMENSION B **Producing inclusive *policies***

B.2 | Organising support for diversity

INDICATOR B.2.4 | ***The Special Educational Needs Code of Practice[1] is used to reduce the barriers to learning and participation of all students***

1 DfES (2001)
2 Disability Rights Commission (2002)

i) Is the use of the Special Educational Needs Code of Practice co-ordinated with the Code of Practice (Schools) from the Disability Rights Commission[2]?

ii) Is the use of both Codes of Practice integrated into an overall inclusion policy within the school?

iii) Is the Special Educational Needs Code of Practice seen as about support rather than assessment and categorisation?

iv) Is support for teaching diverse groups seen as an alternative to categorisation and the provision of individual support?

v) Do external support services contribute to the planning of teaching and learning to reduce barriers to learning and participation?

vi) Are Individual Education Plans about providing access to, and supporting participation within, a common curriculum?

vii) Do Individual Education Plans for some students improve the teaching and learning arrangements for all students?

viii) Do statements of 'special educational needs' build on the strengths of students and possibilities for their development, rather than concentrate on identifying deficiencies?

ix) Do statements of 'special educational needs' describe the changes in teaching and learning arrangements required to increase learning?

x) Do statements of 'special educational needs' describe the changes in teaching and learning arrangements required to increase engagement with other students?

xi) Do statements of 'special educational needs' specify the support required to maximise participation in mainstream curricula and communities?

DIMENSION B **Producing inclusive *policies***

B.2 | Organising support for diversity

INDICATOR B.2.5 | ***Support for those learning English as an additional language is co-ordinated with learning support***

i) Is support for these students seen to be the responsibility of all staff within the school?

ii) Does support for these students help to reduce barriers to learning and participation for all students?

iii) Does support focus on overcoming barriers to learning and participation rather than making a distinction between 'having a difficulty in an additional language' and 'having a learning difficulty'?

iv) Are high expectations for achievement maintained for all students who learn or have learned English as an additional language?

v) Are interpreters of Sign Language and other first languages, available to support all who need them?

vi) Is the effect of moving country and culture recognised as a possible barrier to learning and participation?

vii) Is teaching and support available from someone who shares a cultural background with students?

viii) Does support for these students address barriers to learning in all aspects of teaching, curricula and school organisation?

DIMENSION B **Producing inclusive *policies***

B.2 | Organising support for diversity

INDICATOR B.2.6 | ***Pastoral and behaviour support policies are linked to curriculum development and learning support policies***

i) Is the aim of increasing the learning and participation of students seen as the primary aim of all pastoral and behaviour support staff?

ii) Are difficulties with behaviour related to strategies for improving classroom and playground experiences?

iii) Does behaviour support involve reflection on ways to improve teaching and learning for all students?

iv) Does behaviour support address barriers to learning and participation in school policies and cultures as well as practices?

v) Are all teachers and teaching assistants offered opportunities to learn how to reduce the disaffection and disruption of students?

vi) Does the school attempt to raise the feelings of self-worth of those with low self-esteem?

vii) Is the knowledge of parents/carers used in reducing disaffection and disruption?

viii) Do students contribute to reducing disaffection and disruption of themselves and others in school?

ix) Does support for children in public care encourage educational achievement?

x) Does support for children in public care encourage continuity in their learning?

xi) Does support for children in public care encourage strong links between the school and carers?

xii) Do pastoral and behaviour support policies address the well-being of students who are quietly troubled?

DIMENSION B **Producing inclusive *policies***

B.2 | Organising support for diversity

INDICATOR B.2.7 | ***Pressures for disciplinary exclusion are decreased***

i) Is disciplinary exclusion seen as a process that may be interrupted by support and intervention in teaching and learning arrangements?

ii) Are there meetings, involving staff, students, parents/carers and others, that attempt to deal with problems flexibly before they escalate?

iii) Are the connections recognised between devaluation of students, and disaffection, disruption and disciplinary exclusion?

iv) Does the school avoid creating pools of disaffection in devalued teaching groups?

v) Does the school address feelings of devaluation when they arise in ethnic minority or social class groups?

vi) Does the school attempt to reduce conflict between ethnic or social class groups?

vii) Are responses to concerns about the behaviour of students always to do with education and rehabilitation rather than retribution?

viii) Are students, or others who are seen to have offended against the school community, treated with forgiveness?

ix) Are there clear, positive plans for re-introducing students who have been excluded for disciplinary reasons?

x) Is there a policy to minimise all forms of disciplinary exclusions whether temporary or permanent, formal or informal?

xi) Is the aim of reducing temporary, permanent, formal and informal exclusions shared between staff?

xii) Are clear records kept about informal as well as formal disciplinary exclusions?

xiii) Are regular reports on disciplinary exclusion provided for the governing body?

8.3.1 (… continued) Index for Inclusion – Indicators and Questions

DIMENSION B **Producing inclusive *policies***

B.2 | Organising support for diversity

INDICATOR B.2.8 | ***Barriers to attendance are reduced***

i) Are all barriers to attendance explored within the cultures, policies and practices of the school as well as in children and young people's attitudes and homes?
ii) Does the school avoid using unauthorised absence as a reason for disciplinary exclusion?
iii) Is the unauthorised absence of students treated equitably irrespective of gender or background?
iv) Are the relationships between unauthorised absence, bullying and the lack of supportive friendships recognised?
v) Does the school respond to student pregnancy in a way that is supportive and non-discriminatory towards girls?
vi) Does the school actively support the return to school and participation of students who have had a bereavement, a chronic illness or a long-term absence?
vii) Is there clear advice on extended leave to visit a 'home' country that has been negotiated with the school's communities?
viii) Are there guidelines for integrating into lessons the experiences gained by those who have been away for extended periods?
ix) Is there a plan to improve co-operation between staff and parents/carers over unauthorised absence?
x) Is there a co-ordinated strategy between the school and other agencies?
xi) Is there an efficient system for reporting absence and discovering reasons for it?
xii) Is a record kept of absences from individual lessons?
xiii) Are absences from particular lessons seen as a reason for exploring relationships with teachers and what is taught?
xiv) Are the figures collected by the school an accurate reflection of 'real' unauthorised absence?

DIMENSION C **Evolving inclusive *practices***

C.1 | Orchestrating learning

INDICATOR C.1.1 | ***Teaching is planned with the learning of all students in mind***

i) Is teaching planned to support learning rather than to deliver the curriculum?
ii) Do curriculum materials reflect the backgrounds, experience and interests of all learners?
iii) Do lessons start from a shared experience that can be developed in a variety of ways?
iv) Do lessons reflect a range of interests for both boys and girls?
v) Do lessons extend the learning of all students?
vi) Do lessons encourage a view of learning as continuous rather than completed with particular tasks?
vii) Can different subjects be learnt in different ways, for example, intensive literacy or foreign language courses?
viii) Are interpreters available for deaf students or others for whom English is an additional language?
ix) Does planning reflect on and attempt to minimise barriers to learning and participation for particular students?
x) Do teachers examine ways to reduce the need for the individual support of students?
xi) Do lessons provide opportunities for paired and group activities as well as individual and whole classwork?
xii) Is there a variety of activities involving, for example, oral presentation and discussion, listening, reading, writing, drawing, problem solving, use of library, audio/visual materials, practical tasks and computers?
xiii) Can students participate in, for example, science and physical education in clothes appropriate to their religious beliefs?
xiv) Is the curriculum adapted for students concerned about participating in, for example, art or music, because of their religious beliefs?
xv) Are lessons adapted, if necessary, so students with physical or sensory impairments can develop skills and knowledge through physical education or practical science or the physics of light and sound?
xvi) Do staff recognise the additional time required by some students with impairments to use equipment in practical work?

DIMENSION B **Producing inclusive *policies***

B.2 | Organising support for diversity

INDICATOR B.2.9 | ***Bullying is minimised***

i) Do staff, parents/carers, governors and students share a view of what bullying is?
ii) Is bullying seen as a potential part of all power relationships?
iii) Is bullying seen to be concerned with verbal and emotional hurt as well as physical assault?
iv) Is the threat of the withdrawal of friendship understood as a source of bullying?
v) Is bullying seen as occurring potentially between staff, staff and students, and staff and parents/carers as well as between students?
vi) Are racist, sexist, disablist and homophobic comments and behaviour seen as aspects of bullying?
vii) Is there a clear policy statement about bullying, which sets out in detail what behaviour is acceptable and unacceptable in the school?
viii) Can the language of the policy statement be understood by staff, governors, students and parents/carers?
ix) Are men and women available who are approachable and can give support about bullying to boys and girls?
x) Do students know who to turn to if they are bullied?
xi) Are there people inside and outside the school who staff can turn to if they are bullied?
xii) Are students involved in strategies to prevent and minimise bullying?
xiii) Are clear records kept about bullying incidents?
xiv) Is bullying being reduced?

DIMENSION C **Evolving inclusive *practices***

C.1 | Orchestrating learning

INDICATOR C.1.2 | ***Lessons encourage the participation of all students***

i) Do class and subject teachers take responsibility for the learning of all students in their lessons?
ii) Is there an attempt to view teaching and support from the point of view of students?
iii) Do lessons build on differences in student knowledge and experience?
iv) Do lessons pay attention to the emotional as well as the intellectual aspects of learning?
v) Do lessons convey a sense of excitement in learning?
vi) Is the spoken and written language made accessible to all students?
vii) Is essential technical vocabulary explained and practised during lessons?
viii) Can students record their work in a variety of ways, using drawings, photographs and tapes as well as written work?
ix) Do lessons build on the language and literacy experiences of students outside school?
x) Do lessons encourage dialogue between staff and students as well as between students themselves?
xi) Do lessons encourage the development of a language for thinking and talking about learning?
xii) Are there opportunities for students learning English as an additional language to speak and write in their first language?
xiii) Are students who are learning English as an additional language encouraged to develop and use skills of translation from a home language into English?
xiv) Is the presence of additional adults used to reflect on how curricula and teaching approaches can be used to improve the learning and participation of all students?
xv) Do staff recognise the physical effort expended on tasks by some students with impairments or chronic illness, and the tiredness that can result?

8.3.1 (… continued) Index for Inclusion – Indicators and Questions

DIMENSION C **Evolving inclusive *practices***

C.1 | Orchestrating learning

INDICATOR C.1.3 | ***Lessons develop an understanding of difference***

i) Are students encouraged to explore views which are different from their own?

ii) Are students helped to engage in dialogue with others with a variety of backgrounds and views?

iii) Are there opportunities for students to work with others who differ from themselves in background, ethnicity, impairment and gender?

iv) Do staff demonstrate that they respect and value alternative views during class discussions?

v) Are all 'modern' languages treated as equally valuable?

vi) Do learning activities develop an understanding of differences of background, culture, ethnicity, gender, impairment, sexual orientation and religion?

vii) Are students taught about the variety of cultural influences on language and the curriculum?

viii) Do all students have opportunities to communicate with children and young people in both economically richer and poorer parts of the world?

ix) Does the curriculum give a historical understanding of the oppression of certain groups?

x) Are students taught to question stereotyping in curriculum materials and classroom discussion?

DIMENSION C **Evolving inclusive *practices***

C.1 | Orchestrating learning

INDICATOR C.1.4 | ***Students are actively involved in their own learning***

i) Are students encouraged to take responsibility for their own learning?

ii) Do teachers explain the purpose of a lesson or group of lessons?

iii) Do the classroom environment, displays and other resources help independent learning?

iv) Does the support given to students help them to move on in their learning while drawing on the knowledge and skills they already possess?

v) Are curriculum plans shared with students so that they can choose to study at a faster pace or in greater depth?

vi) Are students taught how to research and write up a topic?

vii) Are students able to use the library and information technology resources independently?

viii) Are students taught how to take notes from lectures and books and organise their work?

ix) Are mechanical copying activities avoided?

x) Are students taught how to present their work in spoken, written and other forms, individually and in groups?

xi) Are students encouraged to summarise what they have learnt verbally and in writing?

xii) Are students taught how to revise for tests and examinations?

xiii) Are students consulted about the support they need?

xiv) Are students consulted about the quality of lessons?

xv) Are students involved in finding ways to overcome their own and each other's difficulties in learning?

xvi) Are students given a choice over activities?

DIMENSION C **Evolving inclusive *practices***

C.1 | Orchestrating learning

INDICATOR C.1.5 | ***Students learn collaboratively***

i) Do students see the offering and receiving of help as an ordinary part of classroom activity?

ii) Are there established rules for students to take turns in speaking, listening and requesting clarification from each other as well as from staff?

iii) Do students willingly share their knowledge and skills?

iv) Do students refuse help politely when they do not need it?

v) Do group activities allow students to divide up tasks and pool what they have learnt?

vi) Do students learn how to compile a joint report from the different contributions of a group?

vii) When others in the class are troubled, do students help to calm them down rather than wind them up?

viii) Do students recognise that every student should have their share of the limelight?

ix) Do students share responsibility for helping to overcome the difficulties experienced by some students in lessons?

x) Are students involved in assessing each other's learning?

xi) Are students involved in helping each other to set educational goals?

DIMENSION C **Evolving inclusive *practices***

C.1 | Orchestrating learning

INDICATOR C.1.6 | ***Assessment contributes to the achievements of all students***

i) Are all staff involved in assessing learning?

ii) Do teachers take responsibility for the progress of all students in their lessons?

iii) Are students involved in assessing and commenting on their own learning?

iv) Are parents/carers involved in the assessment process?

v) Do records of achievement reflect all the skills, knowledge and experience of students, such as additional languages, other communication systems, hobbies, interests and work experience?

vi) Are judgements on students respectful?

vii) Are assessments based on detailed observation?

viii) Is assessment directed at what is important to learn?

ix) Are assessments (including national assessments) always used formatively to develop the learning of students?

x) Do assessments lead to modifications in teaching plans and practice?

xi) Are there a variety of ways of demonstrating and assessing learning that engage with differences in students' characters, interests and the range of their skills?

xii) Are there opportunities for assessment of work done in collaboration with others?

xiii) Do students understand why they are being assessed?

xiv) Are students honestly informed about the consequences of assessment, for example, when entered for different levels in examinations?

xv) Does the feedback to students indicate what they have learnt and what they might do next?

8.3.1 (… continued) Index for Inclusion – Indicators and Questions

DIMENSION C Evolving inclusive *practices*

C.1 | Orchestrating learning

INDICATOR C.1.7 | ***Classroom discipline is based on mutual respect***

i) Does the approach to discipline encourage self-discipline?

ii) Do staff support each other to be assertive without being angry?

iii) Do staff share their concerns and pool their knowledge and skills in overcoming disaffection and disruption?

iv) Are classroom routines consistent and explicit?

v) Are students involved in helping to resolve classroom difficulties?

vi) Are students involved in formulating classroom rules?

vii) Are students consulted on how to improve the classroom atmosphere?

viii) Are students consulted on how to improve attention to learning?

ix) Do students feel that they are treated fairly irrespective of gender or ethnicity?

x) If there is more than one adult in the room do they share responsibility for the smooth running of lessons?

xi) Are there clear procedures, understood by students and teachers, for responding to extremes of challenging behaviour?

xii) Is it recognised by all staff and students that it is unfair for boys to take up more of a teacher's attention than girls?

DIMENSION C Evolving inclusive *practices*

C.1 | Orchestrating learning

INDICATOR C.1.8 | ***Teachers plan, teach and review in partnership***

i) Do teachers share in planning schemes of work for lessons and homework?

ii) Are teaching activities planned so as to make full use of all adults present in the classroom?

iii) Do teachers engage in partnership teaching?

iv) Is partnership teaching used as an opportunity for shared reflection on the learning of students?

v) Do teachers welcome comments from colleagues on, for example, the accessibility of the language of instruction and the participation of students in activities?

vi) Do teachers modify their teaching in response to the feedback from colleagues?

vii) Do classroom and support teachers share in working with individuals, groups and the whole class?

viii) Do teachers and other staff who work together provide a model of collaboration for students?

ix) Do teachers engage with others in joint problem solving when the progress of a student or group is a cause for concern?

x) Do staff working in partnership share responsibility for ensuring that all students participate?

DIMENSION C Evolving inclusive *practices*

C.1 | Orchestrating learning

INDICATOR C.1.9 | ***Teaching assistants support the learning and participation of all students***

i) Are teaching assistants involved in curriculum planning and review?

ii) Are teaching assistants attached to a curriculum area rather than particular students?

iii) Are teaching assistants concerned to increase the participation of all students?

iv) Do teaching assistants aim to make students independent from their direct support?

v) Do teaching assistants encourage peer support of students who experience difficulties in learning?

vi) Are teaching assistants careful to avoid getting in the way of young people's relationships with their peers?

vii) Are teaching assistants given a job description which reflects the range of duties they undertake?

viii) Are all teachers familiar with the range of activities in the job descriptions of teaching assistants?

ix) Is the space in classrooms organised so that teaching assistants can work with groups as well as a range of individuals?

x) Are teaching assistants paid for all the tasks they undertake, such as attendance at meetings, preparation of teaching materials and for training?

xi) Are the views of teaching assistants sought about the nature of their job descriptions?

xii) Is it recognised that some students with impairments may need a personal assistant, rather than a teaching assistant?

xiii) Are students with impairments consulted about the support they might need and the characteristics of the person who might provide it?

xiv) Is it recognised that personal assistants and teaching assistants may need to take on an advocacy role for some students?

xv) Are attempts made to recruit male as well as female assistants?

DIMENSION C Evolving inclusive *practices*

C.1 | Orchestrating learning

INDICATOR C.1.10 | ***Homework contributes to the learning of all***

i) Does homework always have a clear learning aim?

ii) Is homework related to the skills and knowledge of all students?

iii) Are there opportunities for recording homework in a variety of ways?

iv) Does homework extend the skills and knowledge of all students?

v) Do teachers support each other on how to set useful homework?

vi) Are students given sufficient opportunity to clarify the requirements of homework before the end of lessons?

vii) Are homework tasks modified if discussion reveals that they are not meaningful or appropriate for some students?

viii) Are there opportunities to do homework on the school premises, during lunchtime or out of school hours?

ix) Is homework integrated into curriculum planning for the term/year?

x) Does homework encourage students to take responsibility for their own learning?

xi) Do those who set homework ensure that it can be completed without assistance from parents/carers?

xii) Are there opportunities for students to collaborate over homework?

xiii) Do students have choice over homework so that they can relate it to the development of their knowledge and interests?

8.3.1 (… continued) Index for Inclusion – Indicators and Questions

DIMENSION C **Evolving inclusive *practices***

C.1 | Orchestrating learning

INDICATOR C.1.11 | ***All students take part in activities outside the classroom***

i) Can all students find activities which appeal to them?
ii) Is there transport to enable students who have to travel far or have restricted mobility, to take part in after-school events?
iii) Are all students encouraged to take part in music and drama and physical activities?
iv) Can boys and girls take part in single-sex groups if there are activities in which one gender predominates, such as computer club, chess club or choir?
v) Are there opportunities for single-sex groups where mixed activities are prohibited on cultural, religious or other grounds?
vi) Are children and young people discouraged from monopolising the space in the playground, for example for football?
vii) Are students taught a repertoire of playground games that can include children with a range of skills?
viii) Do students who are chosen to represent their classes reflect the diversity of students in the school?
ix) Do students chosen to represent the school reflect the diversity of students in the school?
x) Are school trips, including overseas visits, made accessible to all students in the school irrespective of attainment or impairment?
xi) Are all students given opportunities to take part in activities outside the school?
xii) Are all students given opportunities to take part in activities which support and benefit local communities?
xiii) Do games and PE lessons encourage sport and fitness for all?
xiv) Do sports days include activities in which everyone can take part, irrespective of skill level or impairment?

DIMENSION C **Evolving inclusive *practices***

C.2 | Mobilising resources

INDICATOR C.2.1 | ***Student difference is used as a resource for teaching and learning***

i) Are students encouraged to pool their knowledge and experience, for example, of different countries, regions and areas of towns or about family histories?
ii) Is the capacity of students to give emotional support recognised and used sensitively?
iii) Do students with more knowledge or skill in an area sometimes tutor those with less?
iv) Are there opportunities for students of different ages to support each other?
v) Are a wide variety of students chosen to tutor others?
vi) Is everyone, irrespective of attainment or impairment, seen to make an important contribution to teaching and learning?
vii) Are the variety of languages spoken by students used as an integral part of the curriculum and as a linguistic resource for language work?
viii) Do students who have overcome a particular problem pass on the benefits of their experience?
ix) Are the barriers to learning and participation of some students, for example in gaining physical access to a part of a building or to an aspect of the curriculum, used as problem solving tasks or projects?

DIMENSION C **Evolving inclusive *practices***

C.2 | Mobilising resources

INDICATOR C.2.2 | ***Staff expertise is fully utilised***

i) Are all the skills and knowledge of staff known, not just those given in their job description?
ii) Are staff encouraged to draw on and share all their skills and knowledge to support learning?
iii) Are staff encouraged to develop their knowledge and skills?
iv) Is the variety of languages spoken by staff used as a resource for students?
v) Do members of staff with particular skills and knowledge offer their help to others?
vi) Are the differences in culture and background of staff drawn upon in curriculum development and teaching?
vii) Are there formal as well as informal opportunities for staff to resolve concerns over students by drawing on each other's expertise?
viii) Do staff offer alternative perspectives on concerns about students?
ix) Do staff learn from instructive practice and experience in other schools?
x) Are local special school staff invited to share their expertise with mainstream staff?

DIMENSION C **Evolving inclusive *practices***

C.2 | Mobilising resources

INDICATOR C.2.3 | ***Staff develop resources to support learning and participation***

i) Do teachers develop shared, reusable resources to support learning?
ii) Do all staff know of the resources available to support their lessons?
iii) Does the library support independent learning?
iv) Is the library organised so that it supports the learning of all?
v) Is there a range of good quality fiction and non-fiction for all learners in the variety of languages used by students?
vi) Are appropriately adapted curriculum materials, for example, in large print, audiotape or Braille, available for students with impairments?
vii) Is there a well organised video library?
viii) Are computers integrated into teaching across the curriculum?
ix) Is there a system for making effective use of educational television programmes within the curriculum?
x) Is e-mail and the Internet used efficiently by staff to assist teaching and learning?
xi) Are all students given opportunities to communicate with others at a distance on paper, by telephone and by e-mail?
xii) Is the Internet used efficiently by students to help with school work and homework?
xiii) Are cassette recorders used to support oral work across the curriculum?
xiv) Are new technological opportunities exploited when they become available, for example, voice recognition programmes, as a support for students who have extreme difficulty in writing?
xv) Are worksheets used only when they are clearly understood by students and extend their learning?

8.3.1 (… continued) Index for Inclusion – Indicators and Questions

DIMENSION C **Evolving inclusive *practices***

C.2 | **Mobilising resources**

INDICATOR C.2.4 | ***Community resources are known and drawn upon***

i) Is there a regularly updated record of resources in the locality that can support teaching and learning? This might include:

- museums
- art galleries
- local religious centres
- representatives of community groups and associations
- parish, town, city and county councils
- local businesses
- hospitals
- homes for the elderly
- police service
- fire service
- voluntary bodies
- sports centres and facilities
- parks
- water, river and canal authorities
- politicians
- ethnic minority leaders
- unions
- citizens advice bureaux
- libraries
- city and rural farms
- countryside authorities
- heritage and ancient building authorities
- train stations, airports, transport authorities
- study centres
- further education colleges, universities.

ii) Do members of the local communities contribute to the curriculum in school?

iii) Are parents/carers and other community members used as a source of support in classrooms?

iv) Are disabled adults involved in supporting students in the school?

v) Do people working in the area act as mentors to support students experiencing difficulties?

vi) Are the resources available to some homes, such as reference material, drawn on to support all students?

DIMENSION C **Evolving inclusive *practices***

C.2 | **Mobilising resources**

INDICATOR C.2.5 | ***School resources are distributed fairly so that they support inclusion***

i) Is there an open and equitable distribution of resources in the school?

ii) Is it clear how the resources are assigned to support students of different ages and attainments?

iii) Are resources directed at encouraging independent learning?

iv) Are staff aware of the resources delegated to the school to support students categorised as 'having special educational needs'?

v) Are resources, delegated to meet 'special educational needs', used to increase the capacity of the school to respond to diversity?

vi) Are support resources directed at preventing barriers to learning and participation and minimising student categorisation?

vii) Do staff review the use of delegated resources regularly so that they can be used flexibly to respond to the changing needs of all students?

(Booth and Ainscow, 2011)

8.4 Chapter 4 Appendices

8.4.1 Student Interview Schedule / Guide

"Hi [name], how are you? Before we start I have to remind you that at any point you can ask me to stop asking questions if you feel distressed or uncomfortable talking about things. You can also ask me any questions about what we are doing at any point. We are going to look at the photos that you took, and talk about them. I will show you each picture on screen, and then if you could please tell me why you took the picture, what it means to you, and what it makes you think or feel"

The researcher began by reading the above statement to each student participant. The interview guide helped the researcher structure the questioning, and respond quickly to participant responses to cover all areas of interest. Throughout the whole interview open dialogue was the preferred approach, and the researcher allowed participants to guide discussion. As such not all questions were asked to all participants.

For each picture, the first set of questions were asked, alongside open dialogue. Following this 5 'general questions' followed the picture based discussion. In both cases secondary level questions and tertiary prompts were used to explore and develop responses. 'General questions' were altered or minimised if content was covered in the discussion of pictures.

For each picture (1-6) (if appropriate / not covered by the participant in open dialogue)

- What can you tell me about this picture?
- What does this mean to you?
- What happens there
- What people are involved
- What activities are involved
- Why is it happy / sad / other emotion?

General questions after pictures (if appropriate / not covered with pictures)

6) How are your relationships with teachers?
    - Do you think you're like a good student, do you think teachers think you are a bit of a naughty kid?
        - How do teachers treat you differently than your peers?
            - Do you think teachers are understanding of you?
        - What sorts of things happen when you are not behaving?
            - For what reasons do you get sent to timeout / detention / etc.?
7) Are there any aspects of school that you find difficult or distressing or stressful?
8) *How are you getting on in your ** classes?
    - Do you feel you've made improvements in your ** work this year?
    - Would you say you're a bit behind your peers in ** classes, about the same, or ahead of them?
    - Tell me about a (good/bad) experience of learning
9) How happy are you with your social life in school?
    - Do you have lots of friends?
    - Have you experienced bullying?
    - Does having dyslexia make you feel different than your peers?
    - Do you have a good time at break/lunchtimes?
10) Tell me in your own words what it is like being [dyslexic/dyspraxic/etc.]

* Denotes multiple questions of the same format, made different by inserting content **

** (English / Maths / Languages / Reading / Writing / Practical subjects / Sports / other specified by participant)

8.4.1 (… continued) Student Interview Schedule / Guide

Secondary Level questions, to explore / develop picture and general questions

- Do you feel included in the classroom / as part of the school community?
    - Do you feel you contribute in classes?
    - Do you feel you make a difference?
    - Do you feel welcome at school?
    - Do you play in any sports teams / a band choir or other group activity?
    - How do you feel about your future prospects?
        - What do you want to do when you're older?
- How do you like to learn?
    - How do you find reading?
    - Do you think you've got quite good practical skills?
    - Do you get to be creative in many subjects?
        - What about in subjects that involve writing like French or English or Maths?
        - Do you generally prefer creative subjects like music or art, or more classroom based subjects?
        - Do you get much opportunity to use computers in school?
            - Do you find that working on computers helps you with your learning?
- Do teachers teach you in a way that you understand?
    - Do you find that you find it difficult to keep up?
        - What it is about the lesson that confuses you?
        - Do you find the pace of some lessons too fast?
    - *Is there any way you think ** work could be made easier for you?
    - How do you go about helping yourself and how can teachers help you?
    - What do good teachers do differently?
        - What's good about the way she teaches?
    - Does it help you if the teachers try more to get you engaged?
    - Do you wish the teacher would push you a bit more?
    - What do you think would be better for you?
        - A better way for them to explain it to you?
        - Do you forget their explanations once they've said it?
- What support do you get?
    - How long have you had this support for?
    - What kind of support would you get from teachers?
    - Do you work with a TA?
    - What's it like being taken out of lessons?
    - What else can you tell me about the intervention? what did it involve?
    - *If you fall behind in ** what happens? Do you get some support?
    - Did it this support help? Was this better?
    - Do you think you'd need any extra support?

Tertiary prompts / expansion questions

- How well do you think you're doing?
- Can you tell me what you dislike about it?
- How does that make you feel?
- What sets that feeling off?
- Does that make you angry?
- Do you find that distracting?
- Why do you think that is?
- Does it bother / embarrass / upset you?
- Does that affect you in other subjects?
- How could this be made better for you?

8.4.2 Secondary Classroom Inclusion Framework (SCIF)

Tasks	1	2	3
Range of formats	Only one available task	At least one alternative format for a given task Project work	More than two alternative formats for a task Or Open interpretation option for the task offered (providing there is appropriate support)
Quality of inclusive options	Only written tasks No consideration of accessibility	Alternative task or materials offer a learning route that is not writing	Identified choice that is specific to two or more learning styles And Inclusive options are equally challenging **Or** Tasks throughout the lesson offer a rich varied mix of multimodal content that is not reliant on any one learning style
Promotion of alternative options	Alternatives only offered to a few specific students Or No alternatives	Alternatives available for all, but treated as a lesser alternative	Alternatives introduced equally by teacher Or Group work promotes and celebrates difference
Base material inclusivity	No consideration of accessibility	Base material in dyslexia friendly formatting	No base material
Work structure	Mostly written work / Predominant use of text books	Variety of teaching methods used / Student interaction tasks	Project based learning Pupil input and experience included Multimodal tasks
Sequencing	Pacing for slower students not considered No observable progression, or no recap on previous class	Reflection time between tasks Some evidence of progressive skill building	Clear development of tasks Flexible or extra tasks to accommodate fast learners
Scaffolding availability	No scaffolding tools available No evidence of sequencing	Scaffold tools for writing offered to specific students Or Support staff work with specific students	Appropriate use of ICT in the classroom available for all students to support and scaffold work Teachers supporting all students

Illustration 8.1 Secondary Classroom Inclusion Framework (SCIF)

8.4.2 *(… continued)* Secondary Classroom Inclusion Framework (SCIF)

Learning Environment	1	2	3
Social / intellectual climate	Culture of individual attainment evident	Teacher promotes value of varied input	Students given time and opportunity to help one another
Co-teaching focus	Teaching assistants only with some of the specific children	Teaching assistant works to solve problems in the class	Teaching assistant supports all learners, as does teacher
Modes of instruction / pacing	Lecturing / transmissive approach predominant	Varied approaches including group work	Group work / individual work clearly divided and accessible to all
Monitoring engagement	Student engagement largely unmonitored	Ask questions to check engagement, including all students	Ask questions presented in a culture that supports learning by mistakes – valuing all contributions
Group work strategies	Students choose their own groups	Strategically mixed skill groups	Groups encouraged to use dynamic and creative skills of the whole group
Hand outs	Mixed or non-dys friendly formatting or Handouts only given to marginalised learners or Handouts not tagged	Appropriate instructions given Handouts are accessibly formatted Handouts are provided for all Handouts are clearly titled, etc.	N/A
Use of whiteboard	Student's learning reliant on accurate copying from the whiteboard at any point	Reading from the whiteboard used to put up information for longer periods in between other modes of following the lesson	Whiteboard seldom used Instructions on paper for individual pacing
Accessible Text	Text presentation does not comply with dyslexia style guide	Some text presentation is compliant Or Text presentation is consistent, but only compliant in some ways	All text presentation is accessible
Accessible IT	ICT not visible in the classroom	ICT used to help some students access content	ICT solutions available to all students as a task route

Illustration 8.1 Secondary Classroom Inclusion Framework (SCIF)

8.4.2 *(… continued)[2]* Secondary Classroom Inclusion Framework (SCIF)

Culture	1	2	3
Time egality	Teacher uses teaching assistant to support marginalised learners exclusively	Teacher spends some time with marginalised learners	Teacher time is divided equally between all learners of different skill
Evidence of student knowledge	Student's personal input not included	Student personal experience integrated into teaching content	Some student learning is independently directed
Explicit inclusive values taught	No diverse or inclusive literature or discussion takes place (during this lesson)	Evidence of diverse or inclusive literature or discussion	Explicit values of inclusivity / Equality and diversity, discussed during the lesson
Celebrate creativity	Creative approaches not included	Creative contributions discussed and praised	Creativity given equal value to traditional learning
Pressure and questions	Children made to answer questions in front of whole class	Strategies to support and encourage individual participation (all input is good input)	Teachers check learning individually or formatively in tutorial sessions
Praise / reinforcement	Negative reinforcement or no appraisals given to marginalised learners in class	Student receive formative feedback on their work during the lesson	All contributions are positively reinforced

Illustration 8.1 Secondary Classroom Inclusion Framework (SCIF)

8.4.3 Semi-structure Interview / Discussion with Teachers

1) 2 minute introduction to my research
2) 30 minutes on semi structured questions
3) 3 minutes on structure of observation
4) 5 minutes on opinions of pupils

Total: **40 minutes**

Questions

1) (**Opener**) Can you tell me what inclusion means to you?
    - What is your experience of inclusion?
    - What is it? – attitude / practice / something else?
    - Is inclusion a positive for ALL students? Why or why not?
2) How does inclusion impact your teaching practice?
    - Daily / incidental impacts?
    - Overall / strategic impacts?
3) How has inclusion impacted your professional development?
    - Training / guidelines / policies ?
    - Attitude / socio-political view / values ?
    - What knowledge do teachers need in order to respond more effectively to diversity in their classrooms?
4) Do you see students with SpLD as more vulnerable than other students?
    - In what way?
    - In what way do you support them differently?
5) What do you understand by the term wellbeing?
6) In what ways do you think teachers can contribute to positive student wellbeing?
    - How do you nurture wellbeing in the classroom?
    - How important / how much of a consideration is student wellbeing to your teaching practice
    - What wellbeing issues do you see in your students?
7) How do you feel SpLDs are perceived at the school?
    - By teachers
    - By students
8) What are your views on policies of inclusion?
    - at your school ? … nationally from government?
    - How well do you think these policies respond to the needs of students with SpLDs?

8.4.3 *(… continued)* Structure of the Observation Schedule

- Look at categories describing types of some inclusive classroom practices in the table on the following pages
- – Please note these represent approaches, and are not judgements of quality
- Are there any aspects you agree / disagree with?
- Are the descriptions practical / applicable to daily teaching?
- Would you add any categories? … If so what?

Opinions from pupils

Here we have a couple of quotes from the interviews conducted with students at the school.

These statements have been selected from the interviews because in them the students express their wellbeing or issues relating to inclusion. Please understand that these select statements are not being taken as a snapshot view of the school.

Could you have a look at these and just respond to them, either as a whole, or individually, identifying perhaps anything that:

- Surprises you ?
- Disappoints you ?
- Pleases you ?
- Any thoughts / reasoning ?

Particularly thinking about your practice, or your response to these kind of scenarios.

8.4.4 Psychometric Questionnaire Questions

The psychometric questionnaires were delivered by computer interface in order to be more dyslexia friendly and accessible, and to make the collection and management of data more efficient.

Questions 1 – 51 were from the Self-Description Questionnaire – II (Craven & Marsh, 2008). These questions were in the form of a statement, to which the participant responded how true the statement was for them, selected from the following options:

- False; Not like me at all; it isn't like me at all
- Mostly false
- More false than true
- More true than false
- Mostly true
- True; This statement describes me well; it is very much like me

Questions 52 – 57 were from the Brief Multidimensional Students' Life Satisfaction Scale (Athay, Kelley & Dew-Reeves, 2012). These questions were in the form of an incomplete sentence, to which the participant responded by selecting an appropriate adjective from the following options:

- Terrible
- Unhappy
- Mostly dissatisfied
- Mixed (about equally satisfied and dissatisfied)
- Mostly satisfied
- Pleased
- Delighted

The Total list of questions was as follows:

1) MATHEMATICS is one of my best subjects
2) I have a nice looking face
3) Overall, I have a lot to be proud of
4) I am honest
5) I enjoy things like sports, gym, and dance
6) I am hopeless in ENGLISH classes
7) I worry more than I need to
8) I get along well with my parents
9) I get bad marks in most SCHOOL SUBJECTS
10) I am not very popular with members of the opposite sex
11) It is difficult to make friends with members of my own sex
12) I get good marks in MATHEMATICS
13) I am good looking

8.4.4 (…continued) Psychometric Questionnaire Questions

14) Most things I do, I do well
15) I often tell lies
16) I am good at things like sports, gym, and dance
17) Work in ENGLISH classes is easy for me
18) I am a nervous person
19) My parents treat me fairly
20) I learn things quickly in most SCHOOL SUBJECTS
21) I make friends easily with boys
22) I make friends easily with girls
23) I have always done well in MATHEMATICS
24) Other people think I am good looking
25) Overall, most things I do turn out well
26) I sometimes cheat
27) I am awkward at things like sports, gym, and dance
28) ENGLISH is one of my best subjects
29) I often feel confused and mixed up
30) My parents understand me
31) I do things as well as most people
32) I am better than most of my friends at things like sports, gym, and dance
33) I get good marks in ENGLISH
34) I get upset easily
35) I do not like my parents very much
36) I am good at most SCHOOL SUBJECTS
37) I do not get along very well with boys
38) I do not get along very well with girls
39) If I really try I can do almost anything I want to do
40) I sometimes take things that belong to other people
41) I learn things quickly in ENGLISH classes
42) I worry about a lot of things
43) I make friends easily with members of my own sex
44) Overall I am a failure
45) I sometimes tell lies to stay out of trouble
46) I hate the way I look
47) I have good friends who are members of my own sex
48) I have lots of friends of the opposite sex
49) When I make a promise I keep it
50) I often need help in MATHEMATICS
51) I have trouble with most SCHOOL SUBJECTS
52) I would describe my satisfaction with my family life as:
53) I would describe my satisfaction with my friendships as:
54) I would describe my satisfaction with my school experience as:
55) I would describe my satisfaction with myself as:
56) I would describe my satisfaction with where I live as:
57) I would describe my satisfaction with my overall life as:

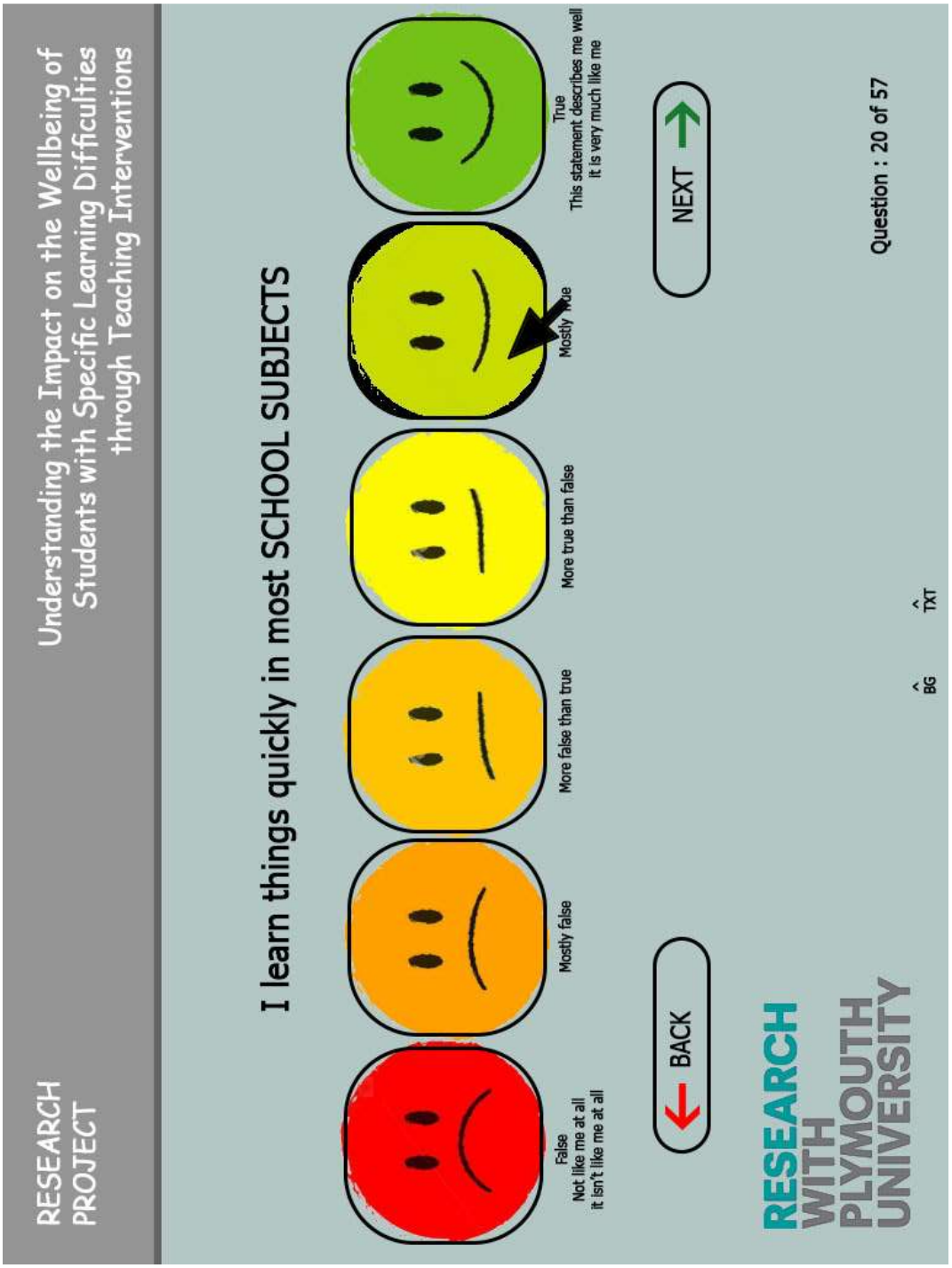
8.4.4 (…continued) Psychometric Questionnaire Interface and Questions

The following table details which SDQ-II questions contribute to which SDQ-II subscores used in the statistical analysis:

	SDQ-II Questions	
	Fixed	**Changing**
Physical Ability	5, 16, 27, 32	
Physical Appearance	2, 13, 24, 46	
Opposite Sex Relations	10, 48	22(boys/girls -opposite), 38(boys/girls -opposite)
Same Sex Relations	11, 43, 47	21(boys/girls- same), 37(boys/girls- same)
Parental Relations	8, 19, 30, 35	
Honesty/Trustworthiness	4, 15, 26, 40, 45, 49	
Emotional Stability	7, 18, 29, 34, 42	
Mathematic Ability	1, 12, 23, 50	
Verbal Ability	6, 17, 28, 33, 41	
General School	9, 20, 36, 51	
General Self	3, 14, 25, 31, 39, 44	

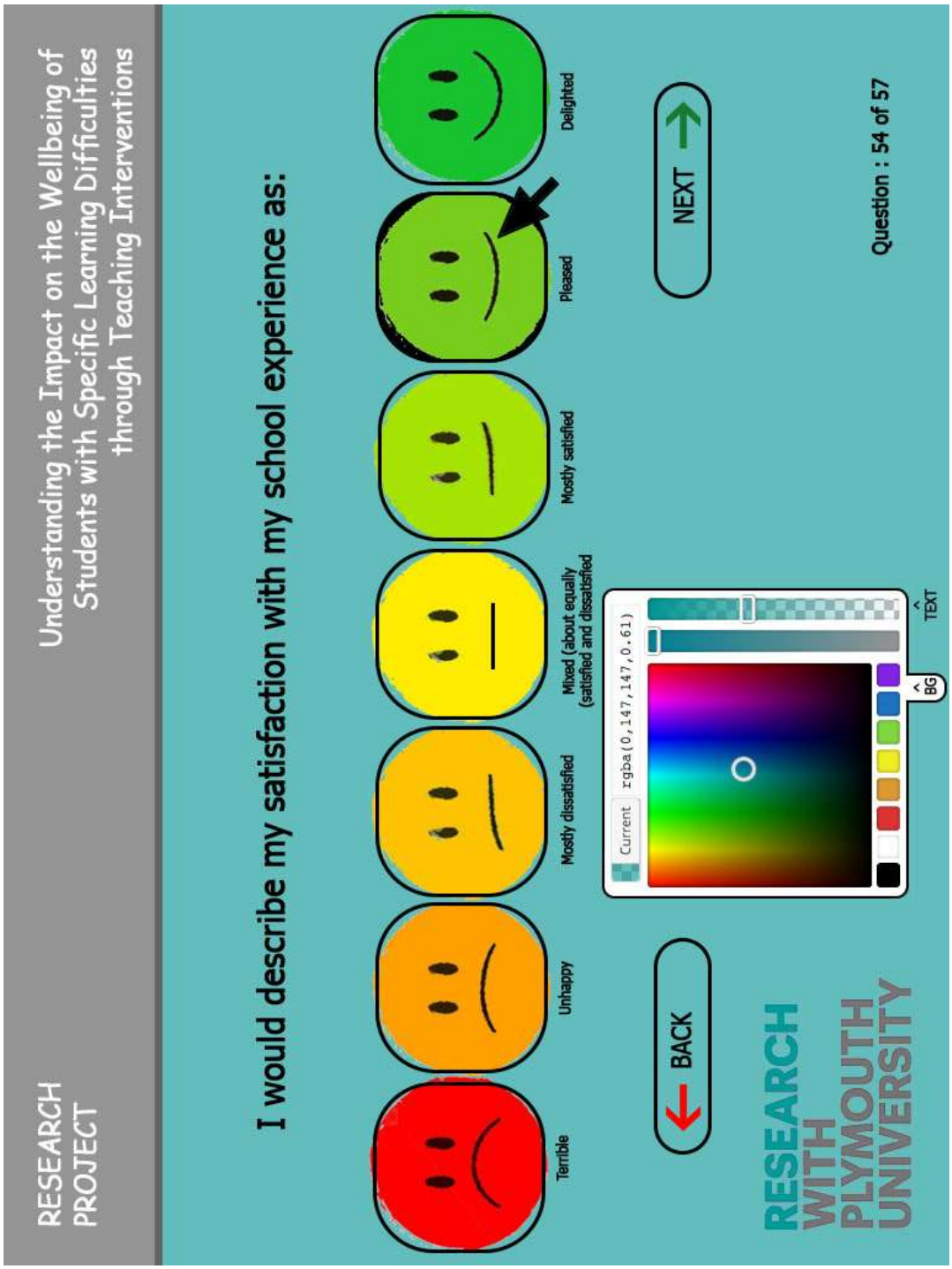
Table 8.1 SDQ-II questions and subscore relationships

8.4.5 Psychometric Questionnaire Interface



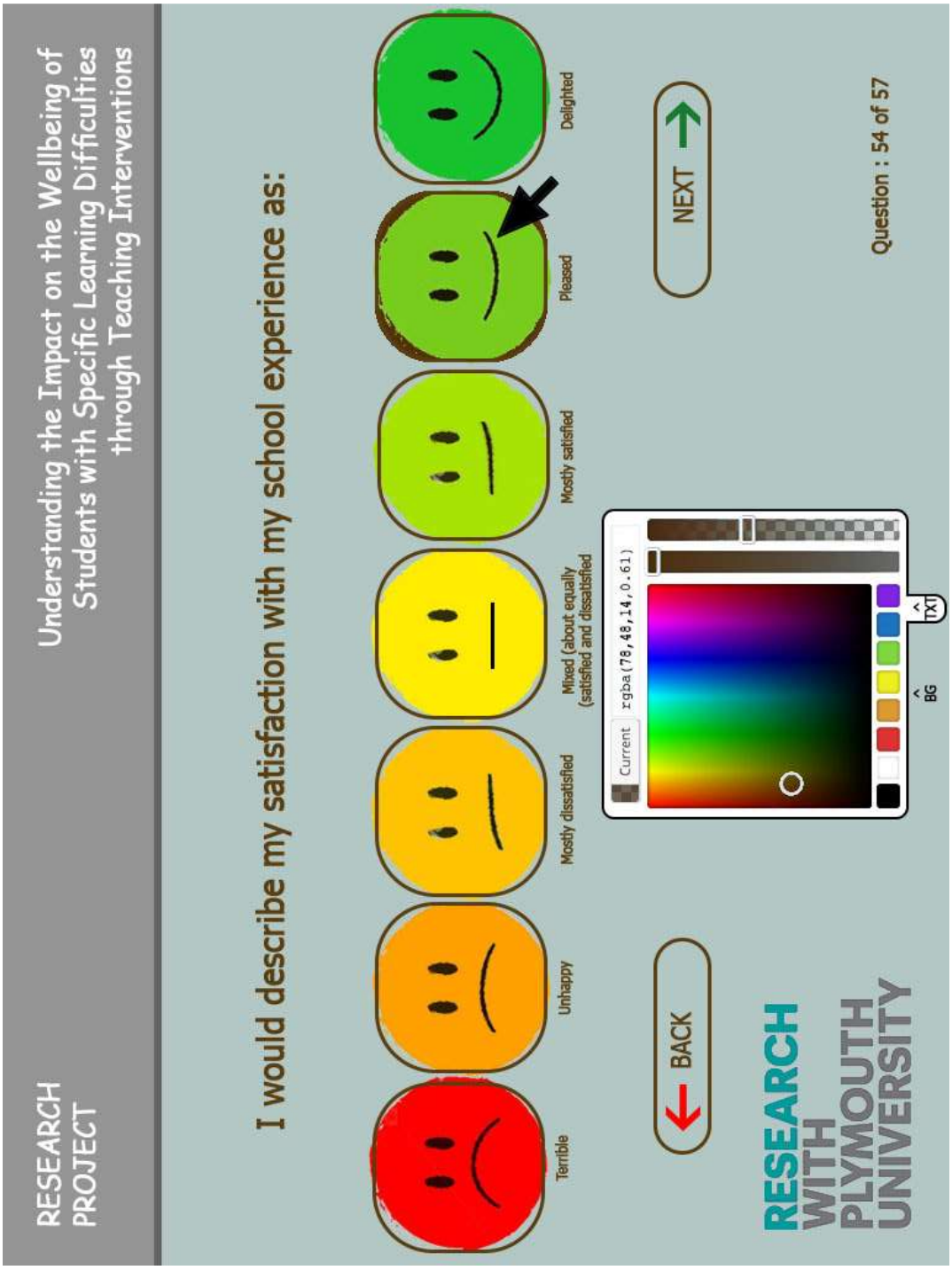
A screenshot of the interface displaying an SDQ-II question, using the default visual settings

8.4.5 (…continued) Psychometric Questionnaire Interface



A screenshot of the interface displaying a BMSLSS question, using custom background settings

8.4.5 (…continued) Psychometric Questionnaire Interface



A screenshot of the interface displaying a BMSLSS question, using custom text settings

8.4.6 Student Participant Ethics Protocol

8.4.6.1 Informed consent

Each participant was provided with detailed information about the background, aims, and procedure of the study. Each participant's parent / guardian also received this information. In both cases the information was tailored suitable for the audience, including for participants with specific learning difficulties that may involve difficulties in reading, which involved using language and pictures, issued to all participants (in keeping with an inclusive perspective). Parents / guardians were also encouraged to discuss their consent with them. Parents were informed that they are also giving consent for information that the school holds about their child's academic level or learning plan to be shared with the researchers. For Information sheets appendices 8.4.9 and 8.4.10.

The researcher reviewed the child friendly information sheet with each participant, prior to the photographic exercise and the interview stages. The researcher also checked for continued consent during the study, in particular at the start of each photographic group session and interview. For consent forms see appendices 8.4.6, 8.4.7 and 8.4.8.

8.4.6.2 Openness and Honesty

No deception was used in the research. Participants, their parents / guardians, and the teaching staff being observed were all informed of the purpose of the research, and were provided with background documentation, tailored in each case for their own level (including where participants are identified as having a learning difficulty). All participants were informed of their right to stop the study process at any point, should they wish to ask additional questions about the research procedures, aims, or data collected. The literature provided for participants and their parents / guardians explained that the research may discuss some potentially sensitive issues – and states what these might be.

8.4.6.3 Right to withdraw

All participants voluntarily opted in to the study after being informed about the nature of the study. The right to withdraw was stated on the consent forms, one of which was signed by the participant's parent / guardian, and the other signed by the participant.

Participants were reminded of the right to withdraw whilst being greeted before the photographic exercise, and again before the data collection of interviews and psychometric tests.

8.4.6.4 Protection from harm

Gatekeepers

The gatekeepers for accessing participants were the individual schools that were the research sites. Each school was contacted in writing explaining the background, aims and procedures of the research, and to request access. Researchers adhered to any decisions limiting access, or placing conditions on access, as agreed on an individual basis with each school. The confidentiality of gatekeepers and their decisions was respected.

Vulnerable group : children with specific learning difficulties

In the literature it is identified that there is an increased chance that such individuals may experience reduced wellbeing – often characterised as depression or anxiety (Sideridis, 2007; Alexander-Passe, 2006; Mellard & Woods, 2007). Because this study explored wellbeing, participants with specific learning difficulties may be considered vulnerable. To overcome this, researchers provided information and signposting in a debriefing document (see Appendix 8.4.13). This document included sources of reputable information and support. Studies have identified that the opportunity for individuals with specific learning difficulties to discuss these issues, or to learn more about the background to it is beneficial to participants, and therefore minimises such risks (Weare & Gray, 2003).

Participants with specific learning difficulties may have difficulty with reading tasks, or in understanding written information regarding the right to withdraw, debriefing, and consent. Participants with specific learning difficulties may also feel negatively about themselves if asked to read something that is too difficult for them to understand. To overcome both of these issues all information concerning consent, the right to withdraw, and debriefing was issued to all

participants (in keeping with an inclusive perspective) using language and pictures, so that the material is accessible to all participants, and also was discussed verbally with participants as well.

Sensitive Topic : Wellbeing

Some participants in the study are likely to experience reduced wellbeing, which may mean they have an abnormally negative perception of themselves, or may feel abnormally unsatisfied with their lives). Reflecting on this topic may heighten, or draw attention to this for some participating, possibly leading to further negative thoughts or emotions. The SDQ-II measure selected for this study was specifically selected because it is a situated measure of this aspect of wellbeing; research suggests that situated investigations reduce the risk of individuals making generalisations that may have wider negative effects (i.e. Peled & Leichtentritt, 2002).

Wellbeing is a generally sensitive topic, and something that many participants may feel shy or inexperienced talking about – doing so may also clash with particular social values that they have. To facilitate this, the gateway photographic task was used to provide a starting point for the interviews. The participants were clearly informed about the intended use for these pictures before they take them so that participants are only bringing to the interview topics that they feel comfortable talking about.

In discussing wellbeing, participants may discuss issues or experiences that are of a sensitive nature. Confidentiality during the data collection was closely monitored

8.4.6.5 Debriefing

All participants were given the opportunity to discuss their experience and ask any questions about participating in the research project, either following the interview, and contact details for the researcher were provided so that participants can discuss any other issues at a later date. The researcher will signpost to organisations or individuals that may be able to provide relevant assistance. Participants were also provided with a debriefing pack that contains similar signposting information. All written debriefing materials were made accessible for participants with specific learning difficulties, but in a universal document, in keeping with inclusive practice. Should any participants withdraw at any stage of the research, their parents received a copy of the debriefing documents (see Appendix 8.4.13), including contact details for the researcher.

8.4.6.6 Confidentiality

In the information pack that was sent in a format for potential participants and their parents / guardians, there was detailed information explaining confidentially using relevant language, and why it is important. This provided information on confidentially for participants, and allows parents / guardians to check the potential participant's understanding of this. Confidentiality was also reiterated during the greeting before the photographic exercise, and again before the data collection of interviews and psychometric tests.

The notes from classroom observations remain private, unless a member of teaching staff, or a student participant in the classroom requests to see a copy of the notes. In this instance a set of notes would be prepared that erases any information from observations made that does not relate to that individual. For pupil participants in the classroom observation they would only be provided with notes that pertain to themselves explicitly. These procedures are to ensure that individuals have access to data stored about them, but maintaining the anonymity of others, where the standard is: "could any individual be identified from the sample by anyone who is a member of teaching staff or a participant?"

Teaching staff will not be given access to any evaluative notes other than that which is to be published. The only further exception under which the described confidentiality would not be maintained is where information or observations detailed in the notes present evidence that a child is at risk of significant harm.

Interviews with participants were audio recorded before transcription. The audio recordings were transferred after each interview session to an external hard disk, and stored in a file that is password protected. Following transcription of audio recordings, text documents were also stored in the password protected file. Written notes from classroom observations and paperwork from psychometric tests were stored in a locked cabinet at the university. All classroom notes were anonymised using number codes that identify any individuals. Records of individuals and codes were stored digitally in a password protected file. Paperwork from the psychometric tests was anonymised in the same manner.

All published documentation, analysis or commentary that includes exerts of any of the above research data will be anonymised by

a) removing all names (including institutions, participants)
b) removing other additional identifying features (identified by asking: "could the individual be identified from the sample by anyone who is a member of teaching staff or a participant?").

Only the principle investigator has access to passwords and keys.

Documents containing participant details, i.e. consent forms, were kept in a separate locked cabinet. All digital and paper based data and other documents will be stored for 10 years and then destroyed. For researcher scripts relating to confidentiality, please see Appendix 8.4.13.

8.4.7 Teacher Participant Ethics Protocol

8.4.7.1 Informed consent

The consent of teaching staff being observed was sought. Teaching staff were provided with detailed information about the background, aims, and procedure of the study, and all participating teaching staff had the opportunity to discuss the background, aims, and procedures of the study in a meeting held before the research commences at each research site individually – to be arranged as agreed on an individual basis with each school. For teacher consent form see Appendix 8.4.8.

8.4.7.2 Openness and Honesty

No deception was used in the research. The teaching staff being observed were all informed of the purpose of the research, and were provided with background documentation, tailored in each case for their own level (including where participants are identified as having a learning difficulty). All participants were informed of their right to stop the study process at any point, should they wish to ask additional questions about the research procedures, aims, or data collected.

8.4.7.3 Right to withdraw

All participants voluntarily opted in to the study after being informed about the nature of the study. The right to withdraw was stated on the consent forms, which was signed by the participant.

8.4.7.4 Protection from harm

Teacher participants were not deemed to be in a vulnerable group nor are there are any of the topics discussed particularly sensitive beyond what in their professional roles deal with on an on-going daily basis. Therefore there is no identified risk.

8.4.7.5 Debriefing

Teacher participants were offered the opportunity to discuss observations and interviews with the researcher after the interview took place, or to contact the researcher later at any point, either to discuss their contribution to the study or if they had any other concerns. Once teacher interviews had been transcribed participants were sent a copy of the transcript and given the opportunity to remove any section of

the transcript that they felt unhappy with. Teacher participants, gatekeepers, and senior staff from the schools were all provided with debriefing for the project in the form of a summary report compiled following the completion of the data analysis.

Subsequently teacher participants were sent copies of the thesis and any associated papers published that contain information gathered by the researcher at the schools.

8.4.7.6 Confidentiality

In the information pack there is detailed information explaining confidentially and why it is important. The notes from classroom observations remain private, unless a member of teaching staff, or a student participant in the classroom requests to see a copy of the notes. In this instance a set of notes will be prepared that erases any information from observations made that does not relate to that individual. In the example of teaching staff, details of the researcher's observations of the children within the classroom would not be made available, nor would observations about other teaching staff present, unless the observation involved the combination of both teaching staff. These procedures are to ensure that individuals have access to data stored about them, but maintaining the anonymity of others, where the standard is: "could any individual be identified from the sample by anyone who is a member of teaching staff or a participant?"

Teaching staff were not given access to any evaluative notes other than that which is to be published. The only further exception under which the described confidentiality would not be maintained is where information or observations detailed in the notes present evidence that a child is at risk of significant harm.

Interviews with participants were audio recorded before transcription. The audio recordings were transferred after each interview session to an external hard disk, and stored in a file that is password protected. Following transcription of audio recordings, text documents were also stored in the password protected file. Written notes from classroom observations and paperwork from psychometric tests were stored in a locked cabinet at the university. All classroom notes were anonymised using number codes that identify any individuals. Records of individuals and codes were stored digitally in a password protected file.

All published documentation, analysis or commentary that includes exerts of any of the above research data was anonymised by

a) removing all names (including institutions, teaching staff)
b) removing other additional identifying features (identified by asking: "could the individual be identified from the sample by anyone who is a member of teaching staff or a participant?")

Only the principle investigator has access to passwords and keys.

Documents containing participant details, i.e. consent forms, were kept in a separate locked cabinet. All digital and paper based data and other documents will be stored for 10 years and then destroyed.

8.4.8 'Expert' Team Participant Ethics Protocol

8.4.8.1 Informed consent

The consent of Expert researcher participants was sought for involvement in the analysis activity. Participants were provided with detailed information about the background, aims, and procedure of the study, and all participants had the opportunity to discuss the background, aims, and procedures of the study in a meeting held before the activity commenced.

8.4.8.2 Openness and honesty

No deception was used in the analysis process. The participants were all informed of the purpose of the research, and were provided with background documentation. All participants were informed of their right to stop the study process at any point, should they wish to ask additional questions about the research procedures, aims, or data collected.

8.4.8.3 Right to withdraw

All participants voluntarily opted in to the study after being informed about the nature of the study. The right to withdraw was stated on the consent forms, which was signed by the participant.

8.4.8.4 Protection from harm

Expert researcher participants were not deemed to be in a vulnerable group nor are there are any of the topics discussed particularly sensitive beyond what in their professional roles deal with on an ongoing daily basis. Therefore there is no identified risk.

8.4.8.5 Debriefing

Expert researcher participants were offered the opportunity to discuss the research with the researcher after the activity took place, or to contact the researcher later at any point, either to discuss their contribution to the study or if they had any other concerns. Once interviews had been transcribed participants were sent a copy of the transcript and given the opportunity to remove any section of the transcript that they felt unhappy with. Debriefing documents summarising the conclusions from the

analysis were issued to expert researcher participants, and subsequently participants were sent copies of the thesis and any associated papers published that contain information analysed by the participants.

8.4.8.6 Confidentiality

In the information pack there is detailed information explaining confidentially and why it is important. Notes from the analysis are anonymised, unless participants give express written consent to be identified as a contributor in the study. Where notes anonymise a participant a set of notes will be prepared that erases any information that could identify that individual. Notes will also be prepared that anonymise all data that could identify participants bar one. These procedures are to ensure that individuals have access to data stored about them, but maintaining the anonymity of others, where the standard is: “could any individual be identified from the sample by anyone who is a member of teaching staff or a participant?”

The multi-expert analysis procedure was recorded for transcription. The audio recordings were transferred after the session to an external hard disk, and stored in a file that is password protected. Following transcription of audio recordings, text documents were also stored in the password protected file. Written notes from the analysis activity were stored in a locked cabinet at the university. All student and teacher participant data was anonymised using number codes that identify any individuals. Therefore expert researcher participants did not have to sign a confidentiality waiver as all the material was suitable for the public domain.

All published documentation, analysis or commentary that includes exerts of any of the above research data was anonymised by

a) removing all names (including institutions, teaching staff)
b) removing other additional identifying features (identified by asking: “could the individual be identified from the sample by anyone who is a member of teaching staff or a participant?”)

Only the principle investigator has access to passwords and keys.

Documents containing participant details, i.e. consent forms, were kept in a separate locked cabinet. All digital and paper based data and other documents will be stored for 10 years and then destroyed.

8.4.9 Student Consent Form

PLYMOUTH UNIVERSITY

FACULTY OF HEALTH EDUCATION AND SOCIETY

Human Ethics Committee Consent Form

CONSENT TO PARICIPATE IN RESEARCH PROJECT / PRACTICAL STUDY

Name of Principal Investigator(s)

Dylan Williams

Title of Research

"Improving the Wellbeing of Students with Specific Learning Difficulties through Teaching Interventions"

Autumn Term 2013

My parents and the researcher have talked to me about what I am going to do today.

I understand that I can stop doing the research at any time, if I feel unhappy or don't want to answer any of the questions then I can.

I know that the information I give is private, so no one will know it is me.

I understand that the researchers have been careful to make sure I am safe, but that if during the research I feel unsafe then I will tell the researcher, and also tell a teacher.

I agree to be part of the research.

Name: …….

Signature: .....…….. Date: .....……..

8.4.10 Parent Consent Form

PLYMOUTH UNIVERSITY

FACULTY OF HEALTH EDUCATION AND SOCIETY

Human Ethics Committee Consent Form

CONSENT TO PARICIPATE IN RESEARCH PROJECT / PRACTICAL STUDY

Name of Principal Investigator(s)

Dylan Williams

Title of Research

"Improving the Wellbeing of Students with Specific Learning Difficulties through Teaching Interventions"

Autumn Term 2013

I am the *parent /legal guardian of _____

The objectives of this research have been explained to me.

I understand that *she/he is free to withdraw from the research at any stage, and ask for *his/her data to be destroyed if I wish.

I understand that *his/her anonymity is guaranteed, unless I expressly state otherwise.

I understand that the Principal Investigator of this work will have avoided any risks, and that safety and health risks will have been separately assessed by appropriate authorities.

Under these circumstances, I agree for him/her to participate in the research.

** delete as appropriate*

Name: …….

Signature: .....…….. Date: .....……..

8.4.11 Teacher Consent Form

PLYMOUTH UNIVERSITY

FACULTY OF HEALTH EDUCATION AND SOCIETY

Human Ethics Committee Consent Form

CONSENT TO PARICIPATE IN RESEARCH PROJECT / PRACTICAL STUDY

Name of Principal Investigator(s)

Dylan Williams

Title of Research

"Improving the Wellbeing of Students with Specific Learning Difficulties through Teaching Interventions"

Autumn Term 2013

The objectives of this research have been explained to me.

I consent to the principle investigator observing my practice in the classroom and making field notes for use in the aforementioned research study.

I understand that my anonymity is guaranteed, unless I request otherwise.

I understand that the Principal Investigator of this work will have attempted, as far as possible, to avoid any risks, and that safety and health risks will have been separately assessed by appropriate authorities.

Under these circumstances, I agree to participate in the research.

Name: …….

Signature: .....…….. Date: .....……..

8.4.12 Student Information Pack

Hi,

Plymouth University are conducting research about the experiences of students who get support in their learning, or who have trouble with reading, maths, or other things. We want to explore how they affect you at school, and how they make you feel.

What will happen?

1 The first bit involves taking photos with a camera. I will teach you how to use my camera, and then you can go off and take some photos that explain what school is like.

2 The second part will involve filling in a form. The questions ask about how you feel in different settings in school. It's really simple, you just need to circle 1 – 5. It will take about 5 minutes.

3 The last bit of our research is really important. I want you to talk to me about the photos you will have taken.
I also want to talk to you about school. If that doesn't sound fun, then guess what? That's really important to me because I need to know why.

If you would like to help with the research all you have to do is tell your parent / guardian. We have sent them a form to fill in.
If you want to ask us any questions before agreeing, then you could speak to your teachers at school to get more information.

8.4.13 Parent Information Pack

Dear Parent / guardian,

The Learning Support of ******* school have identified your child as someone we would be interested in having participate in a research study.
The purpose of this research is to explore how different teaching practices can improve the wellbeing of children with specific learning difficulties, such as dyslexia. The study will explore your child's experiences of school, in activities that they will do with some of their peers.
The study promises to be engaging and rewarding for your child, and will give your child an opportunity to think about and discuss their wellbeing.

During the study your child will engage in three activities:

- Taking photos of parts of the school (places / activities / etc.) where they have positive experiences and where they have negative experiences
- A short questionnaire on a laptop that asks questions about their perception of themselves relating to certain activities, social aspects, and aspects of school
- A short interview with the researcher, where they will discuss experiences of life at school

The whole process will take less than 25 minutes per child, and the school are organising the study so that it will not be an interruption to your child's learning.
All information gathered about your child will be strictly confidential. In the publication of research all participants will be completely anonymous.

This study will provide valuable information about the types of teaching practices that have a meaningful impact on the wellbeing of children with learning difficulties such as dyslexia.

If you happy for your child take part in the research then please complete the consent form, and return it to the school with your child before the half term.
If you have any further questions you would like to ask before consenting for your child to take part, then you can contact the Learning Support at Bristol Grammar School.

Thank you for your support with the study

If you are in any way dissatisfied with this communication, or find you are unhappy with the way that any research is conducted, please contact, in the first instance the principle investigator : telephone number 01752 586668, email dylan.williams@plymouth.ac.uk. Alternatively if you wish to contact the supervisory team, this research is primarily supervised by Dr Rebecca McKenzie, from the faculty of Education at Plymouth University: telephone number 01752 585352, email rebecca.mckenzie@plymouth.ac.uk .
You may also feel you wish to contact the Learning Support department at Bristol Grammar School for further direction: telephone number .

8.4.14 Group Introductory Research Script

Hi,

Thanks for agreeing to take part in my study.

I know you have read the information then I sent out to you, but if you do have any other questions at this stage then please ask Dr Millward.

The first activity that I would like you to do is on your tablet computers. Using the camera, I would like you to take **6** photos.
I want you take photos of things or places that affect how you feel. I want **3** to be things or places that make you happy, or relate to activities that you enjoy doing in school.
The other **3** photos I want to be of things or places that in some way make you unhappy, or that relate to parts of school you don't like.
There are some rules:

- No pictures with people in – pictures with teachers or students will not be included
- Do not interrupt lessons or people whilst taking your photos. If you can't take a photo of something at that time, then wait until later
- Work individually – it is really important that your ideas for this are your own – you don't even have to tell your friends what you are taking photos of or why

When you have taken your photos please email them to your teacher. If you end up taking more than **6** pictures, please only send **6** pictures – remembering that **3** should be positive, and **3** relating to more negative things.

8.4.15 Teacher Information Pack

"Improving the Wellbeing of Students with Specific Learning Difficulties Through Teaching Intervention"

Information for Teachers being Observed

Thank you for your provisional agreement to having your class observed as part of this research project. The researcher is Dylan Williams, a PhD student from Plymouth University. The research he is conducting is primarily concerned with the emotional wellbeing of children with specific learning difficulties, and as part of the research, the researcher needs to make some field notes on observing the classroom environment in which the children in the study learn. You and your teaching are not under any scrutiny. The research is interested in looking at a broad range of teaching styles. The researcher will also discuss classroom experiences with the child in an interview.

The notes the researcher will be making in the classroom are partly about inclusive teaching, and partly about general teaching activities. A copy of the basic framework the researcher will use to make notes is included below.
It would also be incredibly helpful if the researcher was able to get a copy of any hand-outs or slides that you have used during the lesson. None of your class materials will be published, edited or reproduced in anyway in the research - the only purpose for which the researcher will use them is to save time taking notes about them during class. This will give the researcher time to make notes on important interactions in the classroom instead.
If you are not happy for the researcher to have to a copy of your teaching materials then this will be respected, and the researcher would still like the opportunity to observe your classroom.

A copy of the research proposal is included in this pack. The researcher welcomes any questions you may have on the research, or the practicalities of the study. Contact details are on the cover letter.
The researcher has also had the opportunity to discuss the study with the school's head teacher. You may also wish to talk with them for more information about the study.

Guidance Script for Teacher's being observed
When the researcher is in the classroom it is important that class go on as normal. The researcher will not interact with the students in anyway, and will just sit near the back of the class making notes. It is likely that you will want to inform your class of who I am, however for the benefit of the study it is not advised to tell them the types of interactions that I will be observing. An example:

"For today's lesson we have a researcher from Plymouth University joining us. You don't need to be concerned though, he's not assessing any of you; he just wants to see what we do in class, so please just pretend he's not there."

8.4.16 Teacher Information Pack

HEALTH, EDUCATION AND SOCIETY WITH PLYMOUTH UNIVERSITY

Dylan Williams
Room 205, Nancy Astor Building,
Plymouth University,
Drake Circus,
Plymouth
Devon
PL4 8AA
Tel: 01752 586668 / 07436 119162
dylan.williams@plymouth.ac.uk

Dear Teacher / Teaching Assistant,

Please find enclosed in this pack some information about a research study that your school has authorised.

As part of the research, the researcher would like permission to observe you teaching a class. You have been selected because students in your class are involved in another aspect of the research, and the researcher is interested in understanding more about their school environment.

The researcher would welcome dialogue with teaching staff so that the research can be a positive experience for the whole school. If you have any questions, comments, or concerns once you have read the attached information please contact the researcher, Dylan Williams, as above.

If you consent to having your classroom observed then there is also a consent form in this pack, to be returned to the school.

I look forward to meeting you in the near future.

Yours Sincerely

SIGNED

Dylan Williams, BSc

8.4.16 (… continued) Debriefing Information

"Improving the Wellbeing of Students with Specific Learning Difficulties Through Teaching Intervention"

Debriefing Information

Thank you very much for being part of my research project. I hope you enjoyed it. The purpose of the research was to try to understand more about the way that you experience school, and how your learning support needs affect that.

So far I have found out that everyone has really different experiences in school. This will be really useful to me in finding out some cool things about what makes students happier in school.
If you would like to know my findings when I have completed my research in other schools, then I will make it available to your teachers.

Why did I want you to take photos?
Photos are a really good way for you to show me what you want to show me – and that is more meaningful than my ideas about what affects how students feel.

What was the test?
The test you answered was called a 'self-description questionnaire' – and I use it to find out what you think about yourself.

Did you see me sat in your class?
I needed to watch some of the lessons that you are in to see what your teachers are like. They were fine by the way :-)

If you would like any more information about the research, or other information about related issues, you could ask your teachers, or get them to contact me. You may also find some of these websites useful:

British Dyslexia association: http://www.bdadyslexia.org.uk/
Open University: http://tinyurl.com/ou-spld
Young Minds: http://tinyurl.com/ym-wellbeing

8.4.17 Ethical Approval Letter

RESEARCH WITH PLYMOUTH UNIVERSITY

31 May 2013

CONFIDENTIAL
Dylan Williams
School of Education
Faculty of Health, Education and Society
Plymouth University
Room 301
Hepworth House

Dear Dylan

Application for Approval by Faculty Research Ethics Committee

Reference Number: 12/13-138
Application Title: Improving the Wellbeing of Students with Specific Learning Difficulties through Teaching Interventions

I am pleased to inform you that the Committee has granted approval to you to conduct this research.

Please note that this approval is for three years, after which you will be required to seek extension of existing approval.

Please note that should any MAJOR changes to your research design occur which effect the ethics of procedures involved you must inform the Committee. Please contact Claire Butcher on (01752) 585337 or by email claire.butcher@plymouth.ac.uk

Yours sincerely

Michael Sheppard

Professor Michael Sheppard, PhD, AcSS
Chair, Research Ethics Committee -
Faculty of Health, Education & Society and
Peninsula Schools of Medicine & Dentistry

Faculty of Health, Education and Society
Plymouth University
Drake Circus
Plymouth PL4 8AA

T +44 (0)1752 585337
F +44 (0)1752 585328
E claire.butcher@plymouth.ac.uk
W www.plymouth.ac.uk

Professor Michael Sheppard
CQSW BSc MA PhD AcSS
Chair , Faculty Research Ethics Committee

8.5 Chapter 5 Appendices

8.5.1 Tests of Data Normality

	Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	**df**	**Sig.**
Physical Ability	.978	74	.233
Physical Appearance	.972	74	.105
Opposite Sex Relations	.938	74	.001
Same Sex Relations	.968	74	.054
Parental Relations	.882	74	.000
Honesty/Trustworthiness	.973	74	.114
Emotional Stability	.972	74	.097
Mathematic Ability	.976	74	.170
Verbal Ability	.971	74	.090
General School	.966	74	.046
General Self	.975	74	.153
SDQ-II Self Concept Total	.983	74	.421
BMSLSS Score	.920	74	.000

Table 8.2 Tests of Data Normality

8.5.2 Psychometric Distribution Graphs

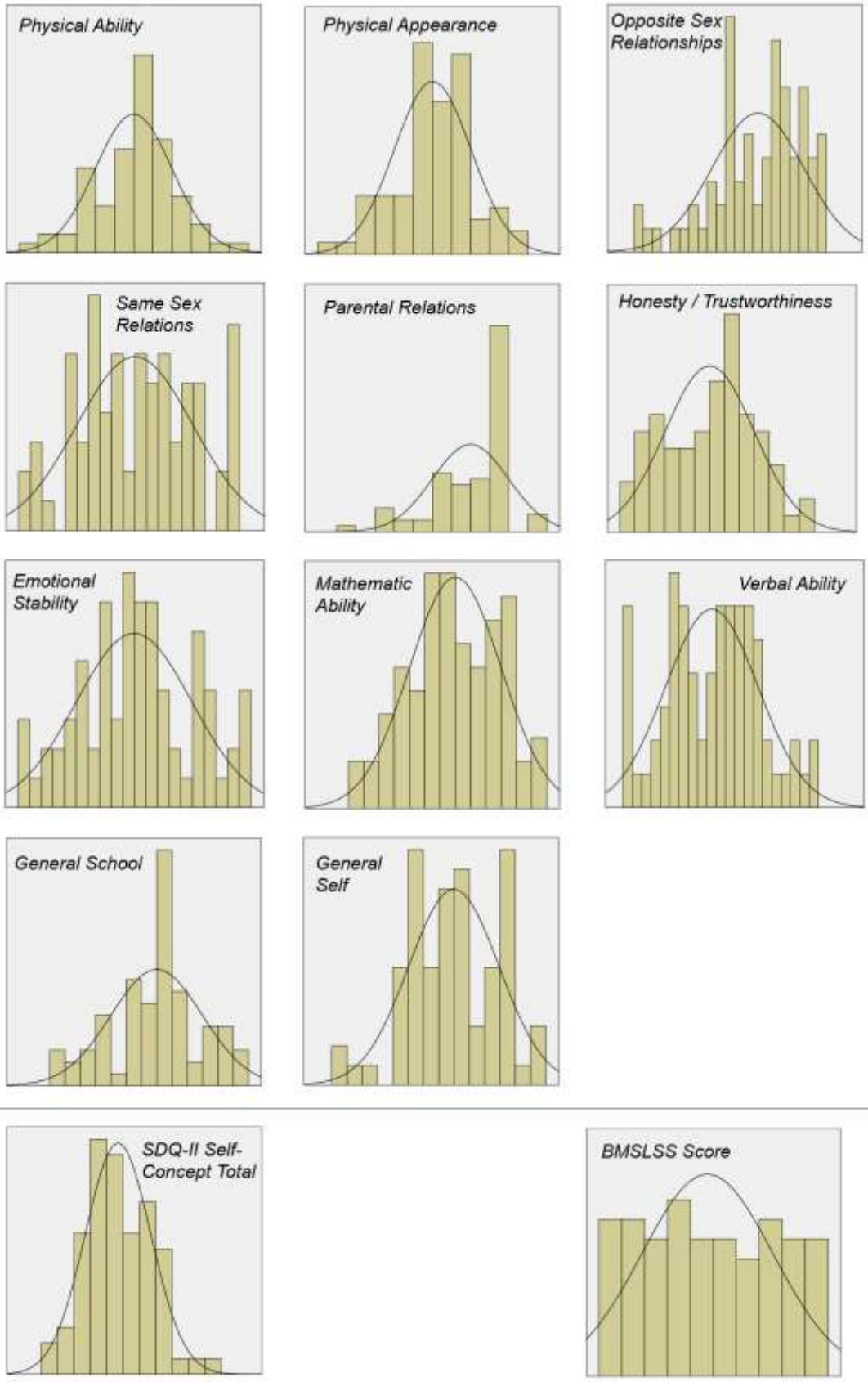


Illustration 8.2 Psychometric Distribution Graphs

8.5.3 Factor Analysis Statistics

Factor	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	3.407	30.977	30.977	1.782	16.201	16.201
2	1.753	15.941	46.917	1.717	15.606	31.807
3	1.189	10.812	57.729	1.772	16.108	47.915
4	1.018	9.252	66.981			
5	.908	8.257	75.238			
6	.840	7.638	827.86			
7	.676	6.148	89.024			
8	.402	3.658	92.682			
9	.343	3.119	95.801			
10	.273	2.479	98.280			
11	.189	1.720	100.000			

Table 8.3 Factor Analysis of SDQ-II Statistical Variables

Varimax Factor Analysis Scree Plot

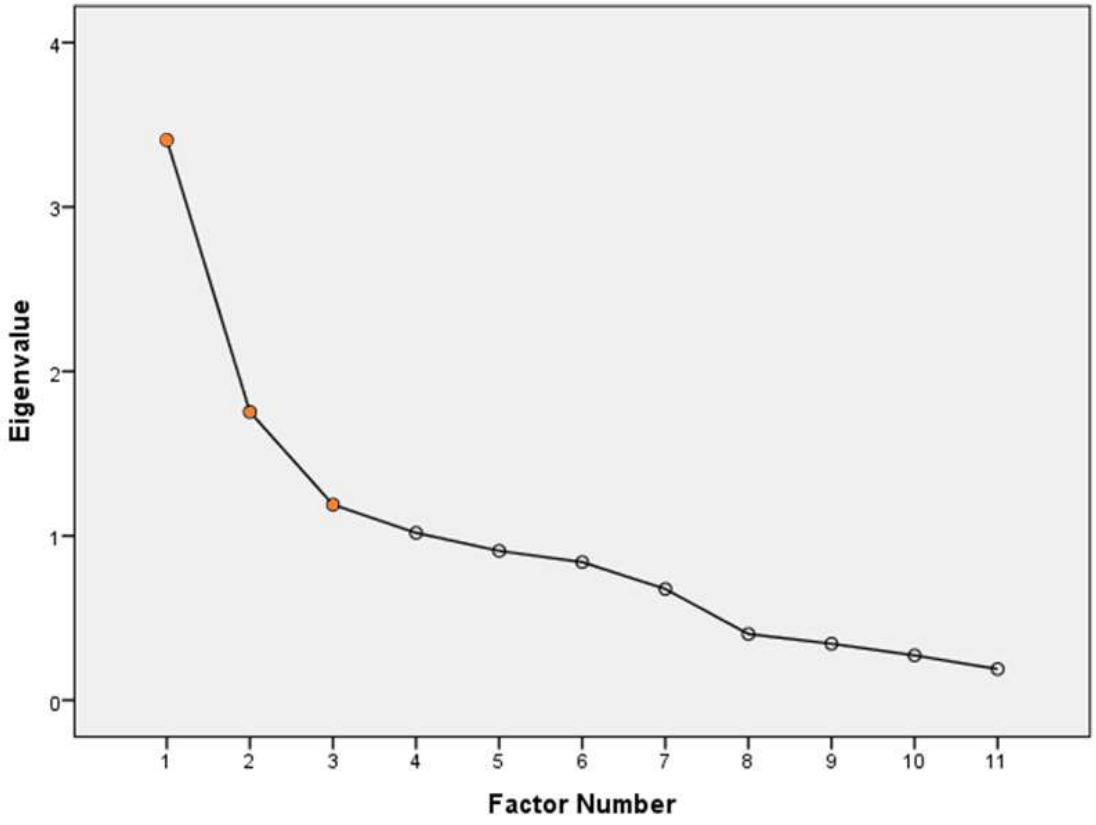


Illustration 8.3 Varimax Factor Plot

8.5.4 Component Matrix

8.5.4.1 Factor 1 Component Matrix

Component 1		Component 2		Component 3	
Work in ENGLISH classes is easy for me	.885	Overall, I have a lot to be proud of	.765	I get bad marks in most SCHOOL SUBJECTS	.908
I am hopeless in ENGLISH classes	.862	Most things I do, I do well	.746	I learn things quickly in most SCHOOL SUBJECTS	.903
		Overall, most things I do turn out well	.702		
ENGLISH is one of my best subjects	.82	I do things as well as most people	.574	I am good at most SCHOOL SUBJECTS	.357
I get good marks in ENGLISH	.766	If I really try I can do almost anything I want to do	.549	I have trouble with most SCHOOL SUBJECTS	.533
I learn things quickly in ENGLISH classes	.479	Overall I am a failure	.521		

Table 8.4 Factor 1 Component Matrix

8.5.4.2 Factor 2 Component Matrix

Component 1		Component 2	
It is difficult to make friends with members of my own sex	.968	MATHEMATICS is one of my best subjects	.832
I make friends easily with boys	.961	I get good marks in MATHEMATICS	.786
I do not get along very well with boys	.95	I have always done well in MATHEMATICS	.762
I make friends easily with members of my own sex	.935	I often need help in MATHEMATICS	-.59
I have good friends who are members of my own sex	0		

Table 8.5 Factor2 Component Matrix

8.5.4.3 Factor 3 Component Matrix

Component 1		Component 2	
I am not very popular with members of the opposite sex	.983	I worry more than I need to	.811
I make friends easily with girls	.971	I am a nervous person	.75
I do not get along very well with girls	.936	I often feel confused and mixed up	.725
I have lots of friends of the opposite sex	.215	I get upset easily	.619
		I worry about a lot of things	.44

Table 8.6 Factor 3 Component Matrix

A varimax solution was selected to highlight principle relationships because the 11 SDQ-II variables represent over 50 individual questions. It was necessary to identify whether any
individual questions were skewing the statistics. Appendix 8.5.4 shows the component factors for the three significant factors. Within each component expected variation is displayed. Negative values have been inverted to better represent the correlations because approximately 40% of the questions were negatively weighted. Values indicated relative tendency to the factor component, and are ordered in terms of effect.
Appendix 8.5.4.4 contains the factor's rotated eigenvalues in an Oblimin Kaiser matrix.

8.5.4.4 Oblim Kaiser Rotated Factor Matrix

Variable	Factor		
	1	2	3
Verbal Ability	1.077		-.438
General Self	.646		
General School	.556		
Physical Appearance			
Same Sex Relations		.983	
Mathematic Ability	.442	-.479	
Opposite Sex Relations			.536
Emotional Stability			.432
Physical Ability			
Parental Relations			
Honesty/Trustworthiness			

Table 8.7 Oblim Kaiser Rotated Factor Matrix

8.5.5 Weighted Category Analysis

n	Stage 1	SD Percentile	Eigen-value	Stage 2	SD Weighted	Weighted Categories	Confidence Range
1	Verbal Ability	10.001	1.077	*Factor 1*	7.022	*High*	(100 - 30)$_{sd}$ (70 - 15)$_{sd}$ (60 - 15)
2	General Self	5.915	0.646			*Medium*	(50 ± 15)$_{sd}$ (50 ± 15)$_{sd}$ (50 ± 15)
3	General School	5.151	0.556			*Low*	(0 + 30)$_{sd}$ (30 + 15)$_{sd}$ (40 +15)
1	Same Sex Relations	9.994	0.983	*Factor 2*	4.997	*High*	(100 - 40)$_{sd}$ (0 + 30)
2	Mathematic Ability	-4.883	-.479			*Medium*	(50 ± 20)$_{sd}$ (50 ± 10)
						Low	(100 + 30)$_{sd}$ (60 - 10)
1	Opposite Sex Relations	10.005	0.536	*Factor 3*	9.017	*High*	(100 - 30)$_{sd}$ (80 - 20)
2	Emotional Stability	8.03	0.432			*Medium*	(50 ± 20)$_{sd}$ (50 ± 10)
						Low	(0 + 30)$_{sd}$ (20 + 20)
1	BMSLSS	1	1	*BMSLSS*	7.66	*High*	100 - 33
						Medium	50 ± 17
						Low	0 + 33

Table 8.8 Weighted Categories Based on Factor Analysis Clusters

8.5.6 Bootstrapping Statistics

Variable	Range	Mean	Weighted Mean	Std. Deviation
SDQ-II Self Concept Total	147 – 278	203.16		26.959
Physical Ability	10 - 30	20.14	18.68	3.872
Physical Appearance	6 - 24	16.41	19.02	3.835
Opposite Sex Relations	4 - 24	17.04	19.75	5.003
Same Sex Relations	9 - 30	19.85	18.41	5.816
Parental Relations	9 - 22	17.59	20.39	2.648
Honesty/Trustworthiness	17 - 36	26.11	20.18	4.698
Emotional Stability	7 - 29	17.89	16.59	5.716
Mathematic Ability	4 - 23	13.78	15.97	4.772
Verbal Ability	4 - 24	13.14	15.23	5.132
General School	6 - 24	15.72	18.22	4.415
General Self	14 - 35	25.50	19.70	4.883

Table 8.9 Bootstrapping Statistics Descriptives

8.5.6 (*…continued*) Bootstrapping Statistics

Variable-T Scored	Range	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness		Kurtosis	
				Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
SDQ-II Self Concept Total	29 – 78	50.00	10.015	.336	.279	-.153	.552
Physical Ability	24 – 75	49.96	10.031	-.108	.279	.428	.552
Physical Appearance	23 – 70	50.07	10.044	-.415	.279	-.016	.552
Opposite Sex Relations	24 – 64	50.08	10.005	-.747	.279	.123	.552
Same Sex Relations	31 – 67	49.97	9.994	.043	.279	-.858	.552
Parental Relations	18 – 67	49.97	9.959	-1.126	.279	1.184	.552
Honesty/Trustworthiness	31 – 71	50.04	9.940	-.071	.279	-.690	.552
Emotional Stability	31 – 69	49.95	9.963	.060	.279	-.630	.552
Mathematic Ability	29 – 69	50.01	10.020	-.167	.279	-.722	.552
Verbal Ability	32 – 71	50.08	10.001	-.047	.279	-.592	.552
General School	28 – 69	49.99	9.977	-.285	.279	-.158	.552
General Self	26 – 69	49.96	9.861	-.204	.279	-.281	.552

Table 8.10 Bootstrapping Statistics Extended Descriptives

8.5.6 (*…continued*) [2] Bootstrapping Statistics

Variable	95% Confidence Mean	95% Confidence Median	95% Confidence SD
SDQ-II Self Concept Total	50 ± 1.18 * (47.58 – 52.28)	48.5 ± 1.48 * (46 – 52)	10.00 ± 0.67 * (8.60 - 11.24)
Physical Ability	49.96 ± 1.16 * (47.69 – 52.19)	51 ± 1.18 * (47 – 52)	10.03 ± 0.91 * (8.16 - 11.75)
Physical Appearance	50.07 ± 1.17 * (47.68 – 52.35)	52 ± 1.69 * (46 – 52)	10.04 ± 0.80 * (8.39 - 11.52)
Opposite Sex Relations	50.08 ± 1.14 * (47.87 – 52.51)	52 ± 2.04 * (48 – 54)	10.01 ± 0.79 * (8.24 - 11.36)
Same Sex Relations	49.97 ± 1.16 * (47.66 – 52.2)	50 ± 1.57 * (47 – 52)	9.99 ± 0.61 * (8.72 - 11.07)
Parental Relations	49.97 ± 1.11 * (47.92 – 52.15)	55 ± 1.47 * (52 – 55)	9.96 ± 1.00 * (7.78 - 11.70)
Honesty/Trustworthiness	50.04 ± 1.16 * (47.81 – 52.32)	50 ± 1.78 * (48 – 54)	9.94 ± 0.65 * (8.51 - 11.07)
Emotional Stability	49.95 ± 1.18 * (47.55 – 52.27)	50 ± 1.23 * (48 – 52)	9.96 ± 0.69 * (8.45 - 11.22)
Mathematic Ability	50.01 ± 1.22 * (47.55 – 52.5)	50 ± 2.10 * (46 – 54)	10.02 ± 0.65 * (8.62 - 11.17)
Verbal Ability	50.08 ± 1.15 * (47.73 – 52.24)	52 ± 1.98 * (46 – 54)	9.98 ± 0.79 * (8.25 - 11.35)
General School	49.99 ± 1.18 * (47.6 – 52.22)	51 ± 1.29 * (48 – 53)	9.86 ± 0.70 * (8.42 - 11.15)
General Self	49.96 ± 1.17 * (47.53 – 52.26)	49 ± 1.99 * (47 – 53)	10.02 ± 0.77 * (8.41 - 11.40)
BMSLSS Score	30.7 ± 0.92 * (28.88 –32.58)	31 ± 1.69 * (29 – 34.5)	7.66 ± 0.63 * (6.36 - 8.70)

Table 8.11 Descriptive Statistics for Bootstrapping Procedure (N=1000)

8.5.7 Psychometric Multivariate Statistics

Effect		Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.	Partial Eta^2
School	Pillai's Trace	.960	1.992	39.000	165.000	.002	.320
	Wilks' Lambda	.301	2.022	39.000	157.692	.001	.330
	Hotelling's Trace	1.537	2.036	39.000	155.000	.001	.339
	Roy's Largest Root	.726	3.070	13.000	55.000	.002	.420

Table 8.12 Multivariate Tests

Wilk's Lambda was used to evaluate multivariate significance because it was necessary to bootstrap the sample as the data is non-parametric. In order to explore Hypothesis 1 it was necessary to use post-hoc tests in order to compare the significant effects between schools. SDQ-Total and BMSLSS scores were significantly different between schools, where $F(3, 65)=6.169$, $p<.001$, partial $\eta 2=.22$, Mean=50 ± 1.18 * (47.58 – 52.28), Median=48.5 ± 1.48 * (46 – 52), and $F(3, 65)=3.576$, $p<.02$, partial $\eta 2=.14$, Mean=30.7 ± 0.92 * (28.88 –32.58), Median=31 ± 1.69 * (29 – 34.5) respectively, as indicated in the table above.

Pairwise comparisons were examined in order to extract relationships of significant difference between schools for SDQ-Total and BMSLSS scores. Appendix 8.5.9 illustrates the clustering and patterns between schools for these measures. From rotations of the clusters a rank order of the four schools for each of the SDQ-II subscores, the SDQ-II total score, and the BMSLSS score were derived. For both the SDQ-II total score and the BMSLSS score rank order divided into two clusters, with School A and School D at opposite ends of the rank list from School B and School C. Supportable difference was notable for the majority of variables between schools, however for some subscores supportable difference was only found between highest and lowest ranked school, or in other cases where such difference was found between up to 3 of the 4 schools.

8.58 Psychometric Factorial ANOVA Statistics

8.5.8.1 Psychometric Pairwise Comparisons

Dependent Variable	(I) School	(J) School	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval for Difference	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Physical Ability	School A	School D	7.093	3.704	.060	-.304	14.490
		School C	8.930	3.725	.019	1.491	16.369
		School B	10.243	3.849	.010	2.555	17.931
	School D	School A	-7.093	3.704	.060	-14.490	.304
		School C	1.837	3.378	.588	-4.908	8.583
		School B	3.150	3.515	.373	-3.869	10.169
	School C	School A	-8.930	3.725	.019	-16.369	-1.491
		School D	-1.837	3.378	.588	-8.583	4.908
		School B	1.313	3.537	.712	-5.750	8.376
	School B	School A	-10.243	3.849	.010	-17.931	-2.555
		School D	-3.150	3.515	.373	-10.169	3.869
		School C	-1.313	3.537	.712	-8.376	5.750
Physical Appearance	School A	School D	2.799	3.643	.445	-4.477	10.074
		School C	10.277	3.664	.007	2.960	17.593
		School B	2.993	3.786	.432	-4.568	10.555
	School D	School A	-2.799	3.643	.445	-10.074	4.477
		School C	7.478	3.322	.028	.843	14.113
		School B	.194	3.457	.955	-6.709	7.098
	School C	School A	-10.277	3.664	.007	-17.593	-2.960
		School D	-7.478	3.322	.028	-14.113	-.843
		School B	-7.283	3.478	.040	-14.230	-.336
	School B	School A	-2.993	3.786	.432	-10.555	4.568
		School D	-.194	3.457	.955	-7.098	6.709
		School C	7.283	3.478	.040	.336	14.230
Opposite Sex Relations	School A	School D	-9.828	3.588	.008	-16.994	-2.663
		School C	-3.324	3.608	.360	-10.530	3.882
		School B	-4.389	3.729	.243	-11.836	3.058
	School D	School A	9.828	3.588	.008	2.663	16.994
		School C	6.504	3.272	.051	-.030	13.039
		School B	5.439	3.404	.115	-1.360	12.238

Table 8.13 Psychometric Pairwise Comparisons

		School A	3.324	3.608	.360	-3.882	10.530
	School C	School D	-6.504	3.272	.051	-13.039	.030
		School B	-1.065	3.426	.757	-7.907	5.776
		School A	4.389	3.729	.243	-3.058	11.836
	School B	School D	-5.439	3.404	.115	-12.238	1.360
		School C	1.065	3.426	.757	-5.776	7.907
		School D	-1.968	3.558	.582	-9.075	5.138
	School A	School C	1.643	3.578	.648	-5.503	8.790
		School B	4.965	3.698	.184	-2.420	12.351
		School A	1.968	3.558	.582	-5.138	9.075
	School D	School C	3.612	3.245	.270	-2.869	10.092
Same Sex		School B	6.933	3.376	.044	.190	13.676
Relations		School A	-1.643	3.578	.648	-8.790	5.503
	School C	School D	-3.612	3.245	.270	-10.092	2.869
		School B	3.322	3.398	.332	-3.464	10.107
		School A	-4.965	3.698	.184	-12.351	2.420
	School B	School D	-6.933	3.376	.044	-13.676	-.190
		School C	-3.322	3.398	.332	-10.107	3.464
		School D	-6.368	3.622	.083	-13.602	.865
	School A	School C	1.752	3.642	.632	-5.522	9.027
		School B	1.382	3.764	.715	-6.136	8.899
		School A	6.368	3.622	.083	-.865	13.602
	School D	School C	8.121	3.303	.017	1.524	14.717
Parental		School B	7.750	3.437	.028	.886	14.614
Relations		School A	-1.752	3.642	.632	-9.027	5.522
	School C	School D	-8.121	3.303	.017	-14.717	-1.524
		School B	-.371	3.458	.915	-7.277	6.536
		School A	-1.382	3.764	.715	-8.899	6.136
	School B	School D	-7.750	3.437	.028	-14.614	-.886
		School C	.371	3.458	.915	-6.536	7.277
		School D	-9.113	3.495	.011	-16.092	-2.133
	School A	School C	-7.515	3.514	.036	-14.534	-.497
		School B	.504	3.632	.890	-6.750	7.757
		School A	9.113	3.495	.011	2.133	16.092
	School D	School C	1.597	3.187	.618	-4.767	7.962
Honesty/Tru		School B	9.617	3.316	.005	2.994	16.239
stworthiness		School A	7.515	3.514	.036	.497	14.534
	School C	School D	-1.597	3.187	.618	-7.962	4.767
		School B	8.019	3.337	.019	1.355	14.683
		School A	-.504	3.632	.890	-7.757	6.750
	School B	School D	-9.617	3.316	.005	-16.239	-2.994
		School C	-8.019	3.337	.019	-14.683	-1.355

Table 8.13 Psychometric Pairwise Comparisons

		School D	-4.010	3.184	.212	-10.367	2.348
	School A	School C	3.921	3.202	.225	-2.473	10.315
		School B	8.660	3.309	.011	2.052	15.267
		School A	4.010	3.184	.212	-2.348	10.367
	School D	School C	7.930	2.903	.008	2.132	13.728
		School B	12.669	3.021	.00008 5	6.637	18.702
Emotional		School A	-3.921	3.202	.225	-10.315	2.473
Stability	School C	School D	-7.930	2.903	.008	-13.728	-2.132
		School B	4.739	3.040	.124	-1.332	10.810
		School A	-8.660	3.309	.011	-15.267	-2.052
	School B	School D	-12.669	3.021	.00008 5	-18.702	-6.637
		School C	-4.739	3.040	.124	-10.810	1.332
		School D	-3.281	3.431	.343	-10.132	3.571
	School A	School C	4.388	3.450	.208	-2.503	11.278
		School B	5.033	3.566	.163	-2.088	12.154
		School A	3.281	3.431	.343	-3.571	10.132
	School D	School C	7.668	3.129	.017	1.420	13.917
Mathematic		School B	8.314	3.255	.013	1.812	14.815
Ability		School A	-4.388	3.450	.208	-11.278	2.503
	School C	School D	-7.668	3.129	.017	-13.917	-1.420
		School B	.646	3.276	.844	-5.897	7.188
		School A	-5.033	3.566	.163	-12.154	2.088
	School B	School D	-8.314	3.255	.013	-14.815	-1.812
		School C	-.646	3.276	.844	-7.188	5.897
		School D	2.814	3.388	.409	-3.953	9.580
	School A	School C	10.864	3.407	.002	4.059	17.668
		School B	7.997	3.521	.026	.965	15.029
		School A	-2.814	3.388	.409	-9.580	3.953
	School D	School C	8.050	3.090	.011	1.879	14.221
Verbal		School B	5.183	3.215	.112	-1.237	11.604
Ability		School A	-10.864	3.407	.002	-17.668	-4.059
	School C	School D	-8.050	3.090	.011	-14.221	-1.879
		School B	-2.867	3.235	.379	-9.328	3.594
		School A	-7.997	3.521	.026	-15.029	-.965
	School B	School D	-5.183	3.215	.112	-11.604	1.237
		School C	2.867	3.235	.379	-3.594	9.328
		School D	-5.461	3.434	.117	-12.320	1.398
General	School A	School C	2.954	3.454	.396	-3.944	9.851
School		School B	1.686	3.569	.638	-5.442	8.815

Table 8.13 Psychometric Pairwise Comparisons

		School A	5.461	3.434	.117	-1.398	12.320
	School D	School C	8.415	3.132	.009	2.160	14.669
		School B	7.147	3.259	.032	.639	13.656
		School A	-2.954	3.454	.396	-9.851	3.944
	School C	School D	-8.415	3.132	.009	-14.669	-2.160
		School B	-1.267	3.279	.700	-7.816	5.282
		School A	-1.686	3.569	.638	-8.815	5.442
	School B	School D	-7.147	3.259	.032	-13.656	-.639
		School C	1.267	3.279	.700	-5.282	7.816
		School D	-4.242	3.193	.189	-10.619	2.135
	School A	School C	5.165	3.211	.113	-1.248	11.578
		School B	8.980	3.318	.009	2.353	15.608
		School A	4.242	3.193	.189	-2.135	10.619
	School D	School C	9.407	2.912	.002	3.592	15.222
		School B	13.222	3.030	.000047	7.171	19.273
General Self		School A	-5.165	3.211	.113	-11.578	1.248
	School C	School D	-9.407	2.912	.002	-15.222	-3.592
		School B	3.815	3.049	.215	-2.274	9.904
		School A	-8.980	3.318	.009	-15.608	-2.353
	School B	School D	-13.222	3.030	.000047	-19.273	-7.171
		School C	-3.815	3.049	.215	-9.904	2.274
		School D	-5.761	2.871	.049	-11.496	-.026
	School A	School C	6.468	2.888	.029	.701	12.235
		School B	8.575	2.984	.005	2.615	14.535
		School A	5.761	2.871	.049	.026	11.496
	School D	School C	12.229	2.619	.000016	6.999	17.459
		School B	14.336	2.725	.000002	8.895	19.778
SDQ-II Self Concept Total		School A	-6.468	2.888	.029	-12.235	-.701
	School C	School D	-12.229	2.619	.000016	-17.459	-6.999
		School B	2.107	2.742	.445	-3.369	7.583
		School A	-8.575	2.984	.005	-14.535	-2.615
	School B	School D	-14.336	2.725	.000002	-19.778	-8.895
		School C	-2.107	2.742	.445	-7.583	3.369
		School D	-2.426	2.602	.355	-7.623	2.771
BMSLSS Score	School A	School C	3.924	2.617	.139	-1.302	9.151
		School B	6.549	2.704	.018	1.148	11.950

Table 8.13 Psychometric Pairwise Comparisons

	School A	2.426	2.602	.355	-2.771	7.623
School D	School C	6.350	2.373	.009	1.611	11.089
	School B	8.975	2.469	.001	4.044	13.906
	School A	-3.924	2.617	.139	-9.151	1.302
School C	School D	-6.350	2.373	.009	-11.089	-1.611
	School B	2.625	2.485	.295	-2.337	7.587
	School A	-6.549	2.704	.018	-11.950	-1.148
School B	School D	-8.975	2.469	.001	-13.906	-4.044
	School C	-2.625	2.485	.295	-7.587	2.337

Table 8.13 Psychometric Pairwise Comparisons

8.5.8.2 Psychometric Multiple Comparisons with Bonferroni Correction

Dependent Variable	(I) School	(J) School	Mean Difference	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
		School D	6.82	3.234	.232	-1.98	15.62
	School A	School C	9.08	3.366	.050	-.08	18.24
		School B	10.69*	3.452	.017	1.3	20.08
		School A	-6.82	3.234	.232	-15.62	1.98
	School D	School C	2.25	3.021	1.000	-5.97	10.47
Physical		School B	3.87	3.117	1.000	-4.61	12.35
Ability		School A	-9.08	3.366	.050	-18.24	0.08
	School C	School D	-2.25	3.021	1.000	-10.47	5.97
		School B	1.61	3.253	1.000	-7.24	10.47
		School A	-10.69*	3.452	.017	-20.08	-1.3
	School B	School D	-3.87	3.117	1.000	-12.35	4.61
		School C	-1.61	3.253	1.000	-10.47	7.24
		School D	2.71	3.181	1.000	-5.94	11.37
	School A	School C	9.64*	3.31	.029	0.63	18.65
		School B	1.8	3.395	1.000	-7.44	11.04
		School A	-2.71	3.181	1.000	-11.37	5.94
	School D	School C	6.93	2.971	.137	-1.16	15.01
Physical		School B	-.91	3.065	1.000	-9.26	7.43
Appearance		School A	-9.64*	3.31	.029	-18.65	-.63
	School C	School D	-6.93	2.971	.137	-15.01	1.16
		School B	-7.84	3.2	.102	-16.55	0.87
		School A	-1.8	3.395	1.000	-11.04	7.44
	School B	School D	0.91	3.065	1.000	-7.43	9.26
		School C	7.84	3.2	.102	-.87	16.55
		School D	-7.47	3.133	.120	-15.99	1.06
	School A	School C	-2.41	3.26	1.000	-11.29	6.46
		School B	-2.64	3.344	1.000	-11.74	6.46
Opposite		School A	7.47	3.133	.120	-1.06	15.99
Sex	School D	School C	5.05	2.926	.534	-2.91	13.02
Relations		School B	4.82	3.019	.690	-3.39	13.04
		School A	2.41	3.26	1.000	-6.46	11.29
	School C	School D	-5.05	2.926	.534	-13.02	2.91
		School B	-.23	3.151	1.000	-8.8	8.35

Table 8.14 Psychometric Multiple Comparisons with Bonferroni Correction

		School A	2.64	3.344	1.000	-6.46	11.74
	School B	School D	-4.82	3.019	.690	-13.04	3.39
		School C	0.23	3.151	1.000	-8.35	8.8
		School D	1.81	3.107	1.000	-6.64	10.27
	School A	School C	2.05	3.233	1.000	-6.75	10.84
		School B	6.11	3.316	.419	-2.91	15.14
		School A	-1.81	3.107	1.000	-10.27	6.64
	School D	School C	0.23	2.902	1.000	-7.67	8.13
Same Sex		School B	4.3	2.994	.935	-3.85	12.45
Relations		School A	-2.05	3.233	1.000	-10.84	6.75
	School C	School D	-.23	2.902	1.000	-8.13	7.67
		School B	4.07	3.125	1.000	-4.44	12.57
		School A	-6.11	3.316	.419	-15.14	2.91
	School B	School D	-4.3	2.994	.935	-12.45	3.85
		School C	-4.07	3.125	1.000	-12.57	4.44
		School D	-6.26	3.162	.312	-14.86	2.35
	School A	School C	1.4	3.291	1.000	-7.56	10.35
		School B	3.25	3.375	1.000	-5.93	12.44
		School A	6.26	3.162	.312	-2.35	14.86
	School D	School C	7.65	2.954	.071	-.38	15.69
Parental		School B	9.51*	3.048	.016	1.22	17.8
Relations		School A	-1.4	3.291	1.000	-10.35	7.56
	School C	School D	-7.65	2.954	.071	-15.69	0.38
		School B	1.85	3.181	1.000	-6.8	10.51
		School A	-3.25	3.375	1.000	-12.44	5.93
	School B	School D	-9.51*	3.048	.016	-17.8	-1.22
		School C	-1.85	3.181	1.000	-10.51	6.8
		School D	-10.04*	3.051	.010	-18.34	-1.73
	School A	School C	-6.42	3.176	.284	-15.06	2.22
		School B	-.03	3.257	1.000	-8.89	8.84
		School A	10.04*	3.051	.010	1.73	18.34
	School D	School C	3.62	2.85	1.000	-4.14	11.38
Honesty /		School B	10.01*	2.941	.007	2.01	18.01
Trustworthin		School A	6.42	3.176	.284	-2.22	15.06
ess	School C	School D	-3.62	2.85	1.000	-11.38	4.14
		School B	6.39	3.069	.248	-1.96	14.74
		School A	0.03	3.257	1.000	-8.84	8.89
	School B	School D	-10.01*	2.941	.007	-18.01	-2.01
		School C	-6.39	3.069	.248	-14.74	1.96

Table 8.14 Psychometric Multiple Comparisons with Bonferroni Correction

		School D	-.72	2.78	1.000	-8.29	6.84
	School A	School C	5.67	2.893	.326	-2.21	13.54
		School B	10.84*	2.967	.003	2.77	18.92
		School A	0.72	2.78	1.000	-6.84	8.29
	School D	School C	6.39	2.596	.099	-.67	13.46
Emotional		School B	11.57*	2.679	.000329	4.28	18.86
Stability		School A	-5.67	2.893	.326	-13.54	2.21
	School C	School D	-6.39	2.596	.099	-13.46	0.67
		School B	5.18	2.796	.412	-2.43	12.79
		School A	-10.84*	2.967	.003	-18.92	-2.77
	School B	School D	-11.57*	2.679	.000329	-18.86	-4.28
		School C	-5.18	2.796	.412	-12.79	2.43
		School D	-2.3	2.995	1.000	-10.45	5.86
	School A	School C	6.82	3.117	.194	-1.66	15.3
		School B	5.87	3.197	.426	-2.83	14.57
		School A	2.3	2.995	1.000	-5.86	10.45
	School D	School C	9.12*	2.798	.011	1.5	16.73
Mathematic		School B	8.17*	2.887	.037	0.31	16.02
Ability		School A	-6.82	3.117	.194	-15.3	1.66
	School C	School D	-9.12*	2.798	.011	-16.73	-1.5
		School B	-.95	3.013	1.000	-9.15	7.25
		School A	-5.87	3.197	.426	-14.57	2.83
	School B	School D	-8.17*	2.887	.037	-16.02	-.31
		School C	0.95	3.013	1.000	-7.25	9.15
		School D	4.69	2.958	.705	-3.36	12.74
	School A	School C	12.81*	3.079	.001	4.44	21.19
		School B	8.87*	3.158	.039	0.27	17.46
		School A	-4.69	2.958	.705	-12.74	3.36
	School D	School C	8.12*	2.763	.027	0.6	15.64
Verbal		School B	4.17	2.851	.888	-3.58	11.93
Ability		School A	-12.81*	3.079	.001	-21.19	-4.44
	School C	School D	-8.12*	2.763	.027	-15.64	-.6
		School B	-3.95	2.976	1.000	-12.05	4.15
		School A	-8.87*	3.158	.039	-17.46	-.27
	School B	School D	-4.17	2.851	.888	-11.93	3.58
		School C	3.95	2.976	1.000	-4.15	12.05
		School D	-3.38	2.999	1.000	-11.54	4.78
	School A	School C	6.14	3.121	.321	-2.36	14.63
General		School B	3.87	3.201	1.000	-4.84	12.58
School		School A	3.38	2.999	1.000	-4.78	11.54
	School D	School C	9.52*	2.801	.007	1.9	17.14
		School B	7.25	2.89	.087	-.61	15.12

Table 8.14 Psychometric Multiple Comparisons with Bonferroni Correction

		School A	-6.14	3.121	.321	-14.63	2.36
	School C	School D	-9.52*	2.801	.007	-17.14	-1.9
		School B	-2.27	3.016	1.000	-10.47	5.94
		School A	-3.87	3.201	1.000	-12.58	4.84
	School B	School D	-7.25	2.89	.087	-15.12	0.61
		School C	2.27	3.016	1.000	-5.94	10.47
		School D	-3.09	2.788	1.000	-10.68	4.5
	School A	School C	6.92	2.901	.120	-.98	14.82
		School B	9.10*	2.976	.019	1	17.2
		School A	3.09	2.788	1.000	-4.5	10.68
	School D	School C	10.01*	2.604	.002	2.92	17.1
		School B	12.19*	2.687	.000151	4.88	19.5
General Self		School A	-6.92	2.901	.120	-14.82	0.98
	School C	School D	-10.01*	2.604	.002	-17.1	-2.92
		School B	2.18	2.804	1.000	-5.45	9.81
		School A	-9.10*	2.976	.019	-17.2	-1
	School B	School D	-12.19*	2.687	.000151	-19.5	-4.88
		School C	-2.18	2.804	1.000	-9.81	5.45
		School D	-2.92	2.507	1.000	-9.74	3.9
	School A	School C	8.84*	2.609	.007	1.74	15.94
		School B	10.32*	2.676	.002	3.04	17.6
		School A	2.92	2.507	1.000	-3.9	9.74
	School D	School C	11.76*	2.342	.000026	5.38	18.13
SDQ-II Self		School B	13.24*	2.416	.000004	6.66	19.82
Concept		School A	-8.84*	2.609	.007	-15.94	-1.74
Total	School C	School D	-11.76*	2.342	.000026	-18.13	-5.38
		School B	1.48	2.522	1.000	-5.38	8.35
		School A	-10.32*	2.676	.002	-17.6	-3.04
	School B	School D	-13.24*	2.416	.000004	-19.82	-6.66
		School C	-1.48	2.522	1.000	-8.35	5.38
		School D	-.66	2.272	1.000	-6.85	5.52
	School A	School C	4.52	2.365	.362	-1.92	10.95
		School B	7.88*	2.425	.011	1.28	14.48
		School A	0.66	2.272	1.000	-5.52	6.85
	School D	School C	5.18	2.122	.104	-.59	10.96
BMSLSS		School B	8.54*	2.19	.001	2.58	14.5
Score		School A	-4.52	2.365	.362	-10.95	1.92
	School C	School D	-5.18	2.122	.104	-10.96	0.59
		School B	3.36	2.286	.879	-2.86	9.58
		School A	-7.88*	2.425	.011	-14.48	-1.28
	School B	School D	-8.54*	2.19	.001	-14.5	-2.58
		School C	-3.36	2.286	.879	-9.58	2.86

Table 8.14 Psychometric Multiple Comparisons with Bonferroni Correction

8.5.9 Psychometric Cluster Statistics

8.5.9.1 Wellbeing Score Clusters from Pairwise Comparison

Dependent Variable	School Combination and Significance		Clusters	Rank
Physical Ability	A&D=.6	D&C=.588	D	School A
	A&C=.019	D&B=.373	A, B, C	School D
	A&B=.01	C&B=.712	D, B	School C
			D, C	School B
Physical Appearance	A&D=.445	D&C=.028	D, B	School A
	A&C=.007	D&B=.955	A, B	School D
	A&B=.432	C&B=.04	A, D	School B
				School C
Opposite Sex Relations	A&D=.008	D&C=.051	C, B	School A
	A&C=.36	D&B=.115	A, D, B	School C
	A&B=.243	C&B=.757	A, D, C	School B
				School D
Same Sex Relations	A&D=.582	D&C=.27	A, D, B	School D
	A&C=.648	D&B=.044	A, C	School A
	A&B=.184	C&B=.332		School C
				School B
Parental Relations	A&D=.083	D&C=.017	D, C, B	School D
	A&C=.632	D&B=.028	A	School A
	A&B=.715	C&B=.915	A, B	School B
			A, C	School C
Honesty/Trustworthiness	A&D=.011	D&C=.618	B	School B
	A&C=.036	D&B=.005	C	School A
	A&B=.89	C&B=.019	D	School C
			A	School D

Table 8.15 Wellbeing Score Clusters from Pairwise Comparison

Emotional Stability	A&D=.212	D&C=.008	D, C	School D
	A&C=.225	D&B=.000	A	School A
	A&B=.011	C&B=.124	A, B	School C
			C	School B
Mathematic Ability	A&D=.343	D&C=.017	D, C, B	School D
	A&C=.208	D&B=.013	A	School A
	A&B=.163	C&B=.844	A, B	School C
			A, C	School B
Verbal Ability	A&D=.409	D&C=.011	D	School A
	A&C=.002	D&B=.112	A, B	School D
	A&B=.026	C&B=.379	B	School B
			D, C	School C
General School	A&D=.117	D&C=.009	D, C, B	School D
	A&C=.396	D&B=.032	A	School A
	A&B=.638	C&B=.7	A, B	School B
			A, C	School C
General Self	A&D=.189	D&C=.002	D, C	School D
	A&C=.113	D&B=.000	A	School A
	A&B=.009	C&B=.215	A, B	School C
			C	School B
SDQ-II Self Concept Total	A&D=.049	D&C=.000	B	School D
	A&C=.029	D&B=.000	C	School A
	A&B=.005	C&B=.445		School C
				School B
BMSLSS Score	A&D=.355	D&C=.009	D, C	School D
	A&C=.139	D&B=.001	A	School A
	A&B=.018	C&B=.295	C	School C
				School B

Table 8.15 Wellbeing Score Clusters from Pairwise Comparison

8.5.9.2 Wellbeing Clusters based on Bonferroni Corrected Multiple Comparison

Dependent Variable	School Combination and Significance		Inverse Clusters	Rank
Physical Ability	A&D=.232 A&C=.050 A&B=.017	D&C=1.0 D&B=1.0 C&B=1.0	A, B	School A School D School C School B
Physical Appearance	A&D=1.0 A&C=.029 A&B=1.0	D&C=.137 D&B=1.0 C&B=.102	A, C	School A School D School B School C
Opposite Sex Relations	A&D=.12 A&C=1.0 A&B=1.0	D&C=.534 D&B=.69 C&B=1.0		School A School C School B School D
Same Sex Relations	A&D=1.0 A&C=1.0 A&B=.419	D&C=1.0 D&B=.935 C&B=1.0		School D School A School C School B
Parental Relations	A&D=.312 A&C=1.0 A&B=1.0	D&C=.071 D&B=.016 C&B=1.0	D, B	School D School A School B School C
Honesty/Trustworthiness	A&D=.01 A&C=.284 A&B=1.0	D&C=1.0 D&B=.007 C&B=.248	A, D D, B	School B School A School C School D
Emotional Stability	A&D=1.0 A&C=.326 A&B=.003	D&C=.099 D&B=.00 C&B=.412	A, B D, B	School D School A School C School B
Mathematic Ability	A&D=1.0 A&C=.194 A&B=.426	D&C=.011 D&B=.037 C&B=1.0	D, C D, B	School D School A School C School B
Verbal Ability	A&D=.705 A&C=.001 A&B=.039	D&C=.027 D&B=.888 C&B=1.0	A, C A, B D, C	School A School D School B School C
General School	A&D=1.0 A&C=.321 A&B=1.0	D&C=.007 D&B=.087 C&B=1.0	D, C	School D School A School B School C
General Self	A&D=1.0 A&C=.12 A&B=.019	D&C=.002 D&B=.00 C&B=1.0	A, B D, C D, B	School D School A School C School B
SDQ-II Self Concept Total	A&D=1.0 A&C=.007 A&B=.002	D&C=.00 D&B=.00 C&B=1.0	A, C A, B D, C D, B	School D School A School C School B
BMSLSS Score	A&D=1.0 A&C=.362 A&B=.011	D&C=.104 D&B=.001 C&B=.879	A, B D, B	School D School A School C School B

Table 8.16 Wellbeing Clusters based on Bonferroni Corrected Multiple Comparison

8.5.10 Psychometric Cluster Analysis Description

Using Bonferroni corrected (.05/6 = 0.0083·) multiple comparisons of significant difference between schools for the subscores of the extracted factors, it was possible to further examine how the extracted factors were different for individual schools (see Appendix 8.5.8). Verbal ability was significantly different between School A and School B where p<.039, Mean=8.87 ± 3.158 * (.27 – 17.46), School A and School C where p<.001, Mean=12.81 ± 3.079 * (4.44 – 21.19), and School C and School D where p<.027, Mean=8.12 ± 2.763 * (.6 – 15.64).

General School was only significantly different between School C and School D – the two outliers of the rank order for that subscore, where p<.007, Mean=9.52 ± 2.801 * (1.9 – 17.14). This single corrected significant difference continues to support the Cluster 1 / Cluster 2 distinction, and therefore is adequate to maintain the significant difference of the factor between schools.

General Self was significantly different between School A and School B where p<.019, Mean=9.1 ± 2.976 * (1.0 – 17.20), School B and School D where p< .000151, Mean=9.1 ± 2.687 * (4.88 – 19.5), and School C and School D where p< .002, Mean=10.01 ± 2.604 * (2.92 – 17.1). All three subscores of Factor 1 are significantly different between multiple comparison and therefore the factor is statistically significant.

Mathematic Ability was significantly different between School B and School D where p<.037, Mean=8.17 ± 2.887 * (.31 – 16.02), and School C and School D where p<.011, Mean=9.12 ± 2.798 * (1.5 – 16.73). Same Sex Relations was not significantly different between any pair of schools. Applying a second Bonferroni correction to elect Mathematic Ability to solely represent Factor 2, Mathematic Ability is not statistically significant. As a result Factor 2 is not statistically significant.

Emotional Stability was significantly different between School A and School B where p<.003, Mean=10.84 ± 2.967 * (2.77 – 18.92), and School B and School D where p<.000329, Mean=11.57 ± 2.679 * (4.28 – 18.86). Opposite Sex Relations was not significantly different between any pair of schools. Applying a second Bonferroni correction to elect Emotional Stability to solely represent Factor 3, Emotional Stability remains statistically significant. As a result Factor 3 is also statistically significant.

8.5.11 Multivariate Subject Comparison Test Statistics

A full factorial MANOVA was conducted to compare the effect differences between YES/NO categorisations of SpLD diagnoses (Dyslexia, Dyspraxia, Dyscalculia), additional identified needs (Behaviour-Difficulties, Literacy-Difficulties), and types of support intervention (Inclusive-Support, Exclusive-Support, Teaching-Assistant-Support, SEN-Intervention, English-Support, Behaviour-Intervention), and multiple interactions, on the 11 subscores of the SDQ-II, the total SDQ-II score, and the BMSLSS score. The result of the initial multivariate tests were not supportable as illustrated in Appendix 8.5.11.1. However although no single variable was supportable for the whole model, between subject effects were explored, as illustrated in Appendix 8.5.11.2. Dyslexia was excluded from between subject tests because it did not satisfy minimum case requirements, with only one participant in the study identified as not having dyslexia.

Between subject effects revealed a select number of numerically supportable findings. Participants with dyspraxia were found to be negatively affected in terms of the Verbal Ability and General Self subscores and the SDQ-II Self Concept Total score, where $F(1, 43)= 7.018$, $p<.011$, Mean=50.08 ± 1.15 * (47.73 – 52.24), Median=52 ± 1.98 * (46 – 54), $F(1, 43)= 6.237$, $p<.016$, Mean= 49.96 ± 1.17 * (47.53 – 52.26), Median= 49 ± 1.99 * (47 – 53), and $F(1, 43)= 6.697$, $p<.013$, Mean= 50 ± 1.18 * (47.58 – 52.28), Median= 48.5 ± 1.48 * (46 – 52), respectively. For the current sample it can therefore be stated that self-concept is negatively affected, beyond other factors including dyslexia, for students with dyspraxia with the current sample. The BMSLSS score was not supportably different for participants with dyspraxia. While the BMSLSS and SDQ-II operate together to measure wellbeing, for the current sample it appears that life satisfaction is not significantly affected although self-concept is.

Participants who received support from a teaching assistant have supportably lower SDQ-II Verbal Ability, where $F(1, 43)= 4.089$, $p<.049$, Mean=50.08 ± 1.15 * (47.73 – 52.24), Median=52 ± 1.98 * (46 – 54).

Participants receiving a particular SEN intervention or who are taught in exclusively SEN settings for some lessons were found to have numerically supportable low scores for Same Sex Relations and Opposite Sex Relations, where $F(1, 43)= 5.244$, $p<.027$, Mean=49.97 ± 1.16 * (47.66 – 52.2), Median=50 ± 1.57 * (47 – 52), and $F(1, 43)= 4.34$, $p<.043$, Mean=50.08 ± 1.14 * (47.87 – 52.51), Median= 52 ± 2.04 * (48 – 54), respectively. Participants receiving Behaviour Intervention were found to be differently affected in terms of Factor 2 (Same Sex Relations, and Mathematic Ability), where $F(1, 43)= 6.757$, $p<.013$, Mean= 49.97 ± 1.16 * (47.66 – 52.2), Median= 50 ± 1.57 * (47 – 52), and $F(1, 43)= 6.441$, $p<.015$, Mean= 50.01 ± 1.22 * (47.55 – 52.5), Median= 50 ± 2.10 * (46 – 54), respectively. As previously discussed Factor 2 was not found to be significant between schools in the first layer of interpretation, nor in purely directly in the other interpretative analyses. This test therefore indicates that

the clustering of Factor 2 is strongly related to good/bad behaviour (the precursor to) or behaviour interventions.

Participants with Dyscalculia and Literacy Difficulties were found to have supportably low scores for Parental Relations, where $F(1, 43)= 7.63$, $p<.008$, Mean= 49.97 ± 1.11 * (47.92 – 52.15), Median= 55 ± 1.47 * (52 – 55). Participants with Dyscalculia and Literacy Difficulties could be described has having the greatest impairment in core academic ability (Adderley, 2013) in the sample. Literacy and Mathematics levels are recognised as being the most important predictors of success in other subjects. Participant grades from academic tests were not gathered as part of the study, and therefore it is not possible collaborate that viewpoint for the current sample. Several studies indicate that students with specific learning difficulties can experience negative attitudes and harmful pressure from parents to work harder to improve grades (Sideridis, 2007). Wentzel (1998) demonstrates that this has a negative impact on student wellbeing because the insecurity of school is transferred to home, and this can lead to emotional instability (Alexander-Passe, 2007).

Despite some interesting relationships, this analysis failed to reveal supportable interactions that were sought to understand the impact of the complex reality of the combination of various needs and provisions. Multiple regression analyses were undertaken to explore the interaction between multiple variables affecting the 11 SDQ-II subscores, the SDQ-II total score, and the BMSLSS score. From the model summaries, it was evident that multiple variables in the models were not relevant to the dependant variable. Appendix 8.5.12 combines the summaries. The variations between R2 and the Adjusted R2 values was a ratio of 2:1 or greater for all dependant variables, except for General Self. Adjusted R2 values were all below .1 (indicating the model could be less than 10% predictive) with the exception of Physical Appearance and General Self. Some R2 values were lower than .02, indicating insignificant fit. The overall model is therefore not suitable to extract equations to describe the dependant variables.

It is important to note that the model constructed had an accommodated high margin of error, and therefore despite the lack of individual clear statistical findings, the model loses only the integrity of the model itself, but not the supportable integrity of the individual findings for the purpose of inclusion in qualitative analysis as numerical quantifiers.

Appendix 8.5.12 displays the results of the multiple regression ANOVA tests. General Self was the only dependant variable for which the model proved supportable, where $F(10, 62)= 2.193$, $p<.003$, Mean= 50.05 ± 9.895 * (47.93 - 52.30). Regression coefficients are illustrated in Appendix 8.5.11.3. Strong βs were discovered between several dependant variable models, falling into 3 groups.

In the first group Dyspraxia and Dyscalculia are significant variables in the model. The group consists of Verbal Ability, General Self, and SDQ-II Total. For Verbal Ability where

a participant has Dyspraxia, their Verbal Ability score declines by 10.792, and for Dyscalculia by 8.372. For General Self where a participant has Dyspraxia, their General Self score declines by 10.675, and for Dyscalculia by 8.362. The similarity between these the βs between the two dependant variable models indicates consistency in impact that having a multiple specific learning difficulties has on students. For an entirely dyslexic sample it also supports that theory that they their wellbeing will be supportably different as a result of their specific learning difficulties, correlating with the high eigenvalues of Factor 1. For General Self having Behaviour Difficulties also had a numerically supportably negative impact on the dependant variable score of 6.197. The SDQ-II Total score declines by 9.68 where a participant has Dyspraxia, and 7.364 where a participant has dyscalculia.

In the second group exclusionary types of support (Exclusive Support and TA Support) are strong variables in the model. The group consists of Opposite Sex Relations and Same Sex Relations. For Opposite Sex Relations where a participant receives TA Support, their Opposite Sex Relations score reduces by 8.687. For Same Sex Relations where a participant receives Exclusive Support, their Same Sex Relations score reduces by 9.696.
The third group contains other significant βs that do not show a relationship to others. For Physical Ability where a participant receives Behaviour Intervention, their Physical Ability score reduces by 10.369. No other statistics in the current study support this relationship, even though it is strong. This could indicate the effect of an outlier, or the positive impact of Behaviour Intervention on Physical Ability due to a promotion towards that type of activity, as examined in studies by Sandford, Duncombe and Armour (2008) and Sanders, Field and Diego (2001). The current study lacks sufficient data to make this determination and therefore this statistic will be dismissed.

Physical Ability was significantly different between schools, where $F(3, 65)= 2.766$, $p<.049$, partial $\eta 2=.113$, Mean=49.96 ± 1.16 * (47.69 – 52.19), Median=51 ± 1.18 * (47 – 52). Bonferroni corrected multiple comparisons reveal that participants from School A are significantly higher scoring on the Physical Ability measure compared to other schools, where between School A and School B $p<.017$, Mean=10.69 ± 3.452 * (1.3 – 20.08), and between School A and School C $p<.050$, Mean=9.08 ± 3.366 * (-0.08 – 18.24).

Physical ability subscore relates to participants engaging in sports and athletic activities at school. Therefore at School A engagement in sport is a predictor of student wellbeing (based on the current sample). This was not the case for other schools, however the statistical data offers no explanation for this as no supporting quantitative information about this was collected. According to Leung, et al. (2015) Objective measures of physical ability are substantially correlated with the Physical Ability subscore. Qualitative data supporting this finding will be discussed in the Integrated Analysis to follow.

Physical Appearance was significantly different between schools, where F(3, 65)= 2.932, p<.040, partial η2=.119, Mean=50.07 ± 1.17 * (47.68 – 52.35), Median=52 ± 1.69 * (46 – 52). Studies exploring the internal validity of the SDQ-II measure seldom identify any relationships between this subscore and external factors, except where gender is concerned; however gender is of little significance to the present study. Corrected multiple comparisons identified significant difference in scoring on the Physical Appearance measure between School A and School C, with School A having the most positive score among all the schools in the study, where p<.029, Mean=9.64 ± 3.31 * (0.63 –18.65). Table 8.4.9 illustrates the clustering and patterns between schools for this measure. Table 3.2 identifies that School A offers integrated therapeutic support and supports students to see difference more positively.

8.5.11.1 MANOVA Multivariate Test Statistics

Effect		Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.
Dyslexia	Pillai's Trace	.000	-	.000	.000	.
	Wilks' Lambda	1.000	-	.000	37.000	.
	Hotelling's Trace	.000	-	.000	2.000	.
	Roy's Largest Root	.000	.000	13.000	30.000	1.000
Dyspraxia	Pillai's Trace	.368	1.390	13.000	31.000	.219
	Wilks' Lambda	.632	1.390	13.000	31.000	.219
	Hotelling's Trace	.583	1.390	13.000	31.000	.219
	Roy's Largest Root	.583	1.390	13.000	31.000	.219
Dyscalculia	Pillai's Trace	.245	.774	13.000	31.000	.680
	Wilks' Lambda	.755	.774	13.000	31.000	.680
	Hotelling's Trace	.324	.774	13.000	31.000	.680
	Roy's Largest Root	.324	.774	13.000	31.000	.680
Behaviour-Difficulties	Pillai's Trace	.153	.429	13.000	31.000	.946
	Wilks' Lambda	.847	.429	13.000	31.000	.946
	Hotelling's Trace	.180	.429	13.000	31.000	.946
	Roy's Largest Root	.180	.429	13.000	31.000	.946
Literacy-Difficulties	Pillai's Trace	.395	1.559	13.000	31.000	.152
	Wilks' Lambda	.605	1.559	13.000	31.000	.152
	Hotelling's Trace	.654	1.559	13.000	31.000	.152
	Roy's Largest Root	.654	1.559	13.000	31.000	.152
Inclusive-Support	Pillai's Trace	.194	.574	13.000	31.000	.856
	Wilks' Lambda	.806	.574	13.000	31.000	.856
	Hotelling's Trace	.241	.574	13.000	31.000	.856
	Roy's Largest Root	.241	.574	13.000	31.000	.856
Exclusive-Support	Pillai's Trace	.240	.753	13.000	31.000	.699
	Wilks' Lambda	.760	.753	13.000	31.000	.699
	Hotelling's Trace	.316	.753	13.000	31.000	.699
	Roy's Largest Root	.316	.753	13.000	31.000	.699
Teaching-Assistant-Support	Pillai's Trace	.259	.832	13.000	31.000	.625
	Wilks' Lambda	.741	.832	13.000	31.000	.625
	Hotelling's Trace	.349	.832	13.000	31.000	.625
	Roy's Largest Root	.349	.832	13.000	31.000	.625
SEN-Intervention	Pillai's Trace	.300	1.022	13.000	31.000	.456
	Wilks' Lambda	.700	1.022	13.000	31.000	.456
	Hotelling's Trace	.428	1.022	13.000	31.000	.456
	Roy's Largest Root	.428	1.022	13.000	31.000	.456
English-Support	Pillai's Trace	.065	.166	13.000	31.000	.999
	Wilks' Lambda	.935	.166	13.000	31.000	.999
	Hotelling's Trace	.070	.166	13.000	31.000	.999
	Roy's Largest Root	.070	.166	13.000	31.000	.999
Behaviour-Intervention	Pillai's Trace	.404	1.618	13.000	31.000	.133
	Wilks' Lambda	.596	1.618	13.000	31.000	.133
	Hotelling's Trace	.679	1.618	13.000	31.000	.133
	Roy's Largest Root	.679	1.618	13.000	31.000	.133
Dyscalculia * Behaviour-Difficulties	Pillai's Trace	.000	-	.000	.000	.
	Wilks' Lambda	1.000	-	.000	37.000	.
	Hotelling's Trace	.000	-	.000	2.000	.
	Roy's Largest Root	.000	.000	13.000	30.000	1.000
Dyscalculia * Literacy-Difficulties	Pillai's Trace	.352	1.297	13.000	31.000	.267
	Wilks' Lambda	.648	1.297	13.000	31.000	.267
	Hotelling's Trace	.544	1.297	13.000	31.000	.267
	Roy's Largest Root	.544	1.297	13.000	31.000	.267
Dyspraxia * Behaviour-Difficulties	Pillai's Trace	.289	.971	13.000	31.000	.499
	Wilks' Lambda	.711	.971	13.000	31.000	.499
	Hotelling's Trace	.407	.971	13.000	31.000	.499
	Roy's Largest Root	.407	.971	13.000	31.000	.499

Table 8.17 MANOVA Multivariate Test Statistics

Inclusive-Support * SEN-Intervention	Pillai's Trace	.000	-	.000	.000	.
	Wilks' Lambda	1.000	-	.000	37.000	.
	Hotelling's Trace	.000	-	.000	2.000	.
	Roy's Largest Root	.000	.000	13.000	30.000	1.000
Inclusive-Support * English-Support	Pillai's Trace	.000	-	.000	.000	.
	Wilks' Lambda	1.000	-	.000	37.000	.
	Hotelling's Trace	.000	-	.000	2.000	.
	Roy's Largest Root	.000	.000	13.000	30.000	1.000
Exclusive-Support * Behaviour-Intervention	Pillai's Trace	.000	-	.000	.000	.
	Wilks' Lambda	1.000	-	.000	37.000	.
	Hotelling's Trace	.000	-	.000	2.000	.
	Roy's Largest Root	.000	.000	13.000	30.000	1.000
Exclusive-Support * SEN-Intervention	Pillai's Trace	.000	-	.000	.000	.
	Wilks' Lambda	1.000	-	.000	37.000	.
	Hotelling's Trace	.000	-	.000	2.000	.
	Roy's Largest Root	.000	.000	13.000	30.000	1.000
Exclusive-Support * English-Support	Pillai's Trace	.000	-	.000	.000	.
	Wilks' Lambda	1.000	-	.000	37.000	.
	Hotelling's Trace	.000	-	.000	2.000	.
	Roy's Largest Root	.000	.000	13.000	30.000	1.000
Teaching-Assistant-Support * SEN-Intervention	Pillai's Trace	.000	-	.000	.000	.
	Wilks' Lambda	1.000	-	.000	37.000	.
	Hotelling's Trace	.000	-	.000	2.000	.
	Roy's Largest Root	.000	.000	13.000	30.000	1.000
Teaching-Assistant-Support * English-Support	Pillai's Trace	.000	-	.000	.000	.
	Wilks' Lambda	1.000	-	.000	37.000	.
	Hotelling's Trace	.000	-	.000	2.000	.
	Roy's Largest Root	.000	.000	13.000	30.000	1.000
Teaching-Assistant-Support * Behaviour-Intervention	Pillai's Trace	.000	-	.000	.000	.
	Wilks' Lambda	1.000	-	.000	37.000	.
	Hotelling's Trace	.000	-	.000	2.000	.
	Roy's Largest Root	.000	.000	13.000	30.000	1.000
Dyscalculia * Behaviour-Difficulties * Inclusive-Support	Pillai's Trace	.000	-	.000	.000	.
	Wilks' Lambda	1.000	-	.000	37.000	.
	Hotelling's Trace	.000	-	.000	2.000	.
	Roy's Largest Root	.000	.000	13.000	30.000	1.000
Dyscalculia * Behaviour-Difficulties * Exclusive-Support	Pillai's Trace	.000	-	.000	.000	.
	Wilks' Lambda	1.000	-	.000	37.000	.
	Hotelling's Trace	.000	-	.000	2.000	.
	Roy's Largest Root	.000	.000	13.000	30.000	1.000
Dyscalculia * Behaviour-Difficulties * Teaching-Assistant-Support	Pillai's Trace	.000	-	.000	.000	.
	Wilks' Lambda	1.000	-	.000	37.000	.
	Hotelling's Trace	.000	-	.000	2.000	.
	Roy's Largest Root	.000	.000	13.000	30.000	1.000
Dyscalculia * Behaviour-Difficulties * SEN-Intervention	Pillai's Trace	.000	-	.000	.000	.
	Wilks' Lambda	1.000	-	.000	37.000	.
	Hotelling's Trace	.000	-	.000	2.000	.
	Roy's Largest Root	.000	.000	13.000	30.000	1.000
Dyscalculia * Behaviour-Difficulties * English-Support	Pillai's Trace	.000	-	.000	.000	.
	Wilks' Lambda	1.000	-	.000	37.000	.
	Hotelling's Trace	.000	-	.000	2.000	.
	Roy's Largest Root	.000	.000	13.000	30.000	1.000
Dyscalculia * Behaviour-Difficulties * Behaviour-Intervention	Pillai's Trace	.000	-	.000	.000	.
	Wilks' Lambda	1.000	-	.000	37.000	.
	Hotelling's Trace	.000	-	.000	2.000	.
	Roy's Largest Root	.000	.000	13.000	30.000	1.000

Table 8.17 MANOVA Multivariate Test Statistics

Dyscalculia * Literacy-Difficulties * Inclusive-Support	Pillai's Trace	.000	-	.000	.000	.
	Wilks' Lambda	1.000	-	.000	37.000	.
	Hotelling's Trace	.000	-	.000	2.000	.
	Roy's Largest Root	.000	.000	13.000	30.000	1.000
Dyscalculia * Literacy-Difficulties * Exclusive-Support	Pillai's Trace	.000	-	.000	.000	.
	Wilks' Lambda	1.000	-	.000	37.000	.
	Hotelling's Trace	.000	-	.000	2.000	.
	Roy's Largest Root	.000	.000	13.000	30.000	1.000
Dyscalculia * Literacy-Difficulties * Teaching-Assistant-Support	Pillai's Trace	.000	-	.000	.000	.
	Wilks' Lambda	1.000	-	.000	37.000	.
	Hotelling's Trace	.000	-	.000	2.000	.
	Roy's Largest Root	.000	.000	13.000	30.000	1.000
Dyscalculia * Literacy-Difficulties * SEN-Intervention	Pillai's Trace	.000	-	.000	.000	.
	Wilks' Lambda	1.000	-	.000	37.000	.
	Hotelling's Trace	.000	-	.000	2.000	.
	Roy's Largest Root	.000	.000	13.000	30.000	1.000
Dyscalculia * Literacy-Difficulties * English-Support	Pillai's Trace	.000	-	.000	.000	.
	Wilks' Lambda	1.000	-	.000	37.000	.
	Hotelling's Trace	.000	-	.000	2.000	.
	Roy's Largest Root	.000	.000	13.000	30.000	1.000
Dyscalculia * Literacy-Difficulties * Behaviour-Intervention	Pillai's Trace	.000	-	.000	.000	.
	Wilks' Lambda	1.000	-	.000	37.000	.
	Hotelling's Trace	.000	-	.000	2.000	.
	Roy's Largest Root	.000	.000	13.000	30.000	1.000
Dyspraxia * Behaviour-Difficulties * Inclusive-Support	Pillai's Trace	.000	-	.000	.000	.
	Wilks' Lambda	1.000	-	.000	37.000	.
	Hotelling's Trace	.000	-	.000	2.000	.
	Roy's Largest Root	.000	.000	13.000	30.000	1.000
Dyspraxia * Behaviour-Difficulties * Exclusive-Support	Pillai's Trace	.000	-	.000	.000	.
	Wilks' Lambda	1.000	-	.000	37.000	.
	Hotelling's Trace	.000	-	.000	2.000	.
	Roy's Largest Root	.000	.000	13.000	30.000	1.000
Dyspraxia * Behaviour-Difficulties * Teaching-Assistant-Support	Pillai's Trace	.000	-	.000	.000	.
	Wilks' Lambda	1.000	-	.000	37.000	.
	Hotelling's Trace	.000	-	.000	2.000	.
	Roy's Largest Root	.000	.000	13.000	30.000	1.000
Dyspraxia * Behaviour-Difficulties * SEN-Intervention	Pillai's Trace	.000	-	.000	.000	.
	Wilks' Lambda	1.000	-	.000	37.000	.
	Hotelling's Trace	.000	-	.000	2.000	.
	Roy's Largest Root	.000	.000	13.000	30.000	1.000
Dyspraxia * Behaviour-Difficulties * English-Support	Pillai's Trace	.000	-	.000	.000	.
	Wilks' Lambda	1.000	-	.000	37.000	.
	Hotelling's Trace	.000	-	.000	2.000	.
	Roy's Largest Root	.000	.000	13.000	30.000	1.000
Dyspraxia * Behaviour-Difficulties * Behaviour-Intervention	Pillai's Trace	.000	-	.000	.000	.
	Wilks' Lambda	1.000	-	.000	37.000	.
	Hotelling's Trace	.000	-	.000	2.000	.
	Roy's Largest Root	.000	.000	13.000	30.000	1.000
Dyspraxia * Literacy-Difficulties * Inclusive-Support	Pillai's Trace	.000	-	.000	.000	.
	Wilks' Lambda	1.000	-	.000	37.000	.
	Hotelling's Trace	.000	-	.000	2.000	.
	Roy's Largest Root	.000	.000	13.000	30.000	1.000
Dyspraxia * Literacy-Difficulties * Exclusive-Support	Pillai's Trace	.000	-	.000	.000	.
	Wilks' Lambda	1.000	-	.000	37.000	.
	Hotelling's Trace	.000	-	.000	2.000	.
	Roy's Largest Root	.000	.000	13.000	30.000	1.000

Table 8.17 MANOVA Multivariate Test Statistics

Dyspraxia * Literacy-Difficulties * Teaching-Assistant-Support	Pillai's Trace	.000	-	.000	.000	.
	Wilks' Lambda	1.000	-	.000	37.000	.
	Hotelling's Trace	.000	-	.000	2.000	.
	Roy's Largest Root	.000	.000	13.000	30.000	1.000
Dyspraxia * Literacy-Difficulties * SEN-Intervention	Pillai's Trace	.000	-	.000	.000	.
	Wilks' Lambda	1.000	-	.000	37.000	.
	Hotelling's Trace	.000	-	.000	2.000	.
	Roy's Largest Root	.000	.000	13.000	30.000	1.000
Dyspraxia * Literacy-Difficulties * English-Support	Pillai's Trace	.000	-	.000	.000	.
	Wilks' Lambda	1.000	-	.000	37.000	.
	Hotelling's Trace	.000	-	.000	2.000	.
	Roy's Largest Root	.000	.000	13.000	30.000	1.000
Dyspraxia * Literacy-Difficulties * Behaviour-Intervention	Pillai's Trace	.000	-	.000	.000	.
	Wilks' Lambda	1.000	-	.000	37.000	.
	Hotelling's Trace	.000	-	.000	2.000	.
	Roy's Largest Root	.000	.000	13.000	30.000	1.000
Behaviour-Difficulties * Inclusive-Support * SEN-Intervention	Pillai's Trace	.000	-	.000	.000	.
	Wilks' Lambda	1.000	-	.000	37.000	.
	Hotelling's Trace	.000	-	.000	2.000	.
	Roy's Largest Root	.000	.000	13.000	30.000	1.000
Behaviour-Difficulties * Inclusive-Support * English-Support	Pillai's Trace	.000	-	.000	.000	.
	Wilks' Lambda	1.000	-	.000	37.000	.
	Hotelling's Trace	.000	-	.000	2.000	.
	Roy's Largest Root	.000	.000	13.000	30.000	1.000
Behaviour-Difficulties * Inclusive-Support * Behaviour-Intervention	Pillai's Trace	.000	-	.000	.000	.
	Wilks' Lambda	1.000	-	.000	37.000	.
	Hotelling's Trace	.000	-	.000	2.000	.
	Roy's Largest Root	.000	.000	13.000	30.000	1.000
Behaviour-Difficulties * Exclusive-Support * Behaviour-Intervention	Pillai's Trace	.000	-	.000	.000	.
	Wilks' Lambda	1.000	-	.000	37.000	.
	Hotelling's Trace	.000	-	.000	2.000	.
	Roy's Largest Root	.000	.000	13.000	30.000	1.000
Behaviour-Difficulties * Exclusive-Support * SEN-Intervention	Pillai's Trace	.000	-	.000	.000	.
	Wilks' Lambda	1.000	-	.000	37.000	.
	Hotelling's Trace	.000	-	.000	2.000	.
	Roy's Largest Root	.000	.000	13.000	30.000	1.000
Behaviour-Difficulties * Exclusive-Support * English-Support	Pillai's Trace	.000	-	.000	.000	.
	Wilks' Lambda	1.000	-	.000	37.000	.
	Hotelling's Trace	.000	-	.000	2.000	.
	Roy's Largest Root	.000	.000	13.000	30.000	1.000
Behaviour-Difficulties * Teaching-Assistant-Support * SEN-Intervention	Pillai's Trace	.000	-	.000	.000	.
	Wilks' Lambda	1.000	-	.000	37.000	.
	Hotelling's Trace	.000	-	.000	2.000	.
	Roy's Largest Root	.000	.000	13.000	30.000	1.000
Behaviour-Difficulties * Teaching-Assistant-Support * English-Support	Pillai's Trace	.000	-	.000	.000	.
	Wilks' Lambda	1.000	-	.000	37.000	.
	Hotelling's Trace	.000	-	.000	2.000	.
	Roy's Largest Root	.000	.000	13.000	30.000	1.000
Behaviour-Difficulties * Teaching-Assistant-Support * Behaviour-Intervention	Pillai's Trace	.000	-	.000	.000	.
	Wilks' Lambda	1.000	-	.000	37.000	.
	Hotelling's Trace	.000	-	.000	2.000	.
	Roy's Largest Root	.000	.000	13.000	30.000	1.000
Literacy-Difficulties * Inclusive-Support * SEN-Intervention	Pillai's Trace	.000	-	.000	.000	.
	Wilks' Lambda	1.000	-	.000	37.000	.
	Hotelling's Trace	.000	-	.000	2.000	.
	Roy's Largest Root	.000	.000	13.000	30.000	1.000

Table 8.17 MANOVA Multivariate Test Statistics

Literacy-Difficulties * Inclusive-Support * English-Support	Pillai's Trace	.000	-	.000	.000	.
	Wilks' Lambda	1.000	-	.000	37.000	.
	Hotelling's Trace	.000	-	.000	2.000	.
	Roy's Largest Root	.000	.000	13.000	30.000	1.000
Literacy-Difficulties * Inclusive-Support * Behaviour-Intervention	Pillai's Trace	.000	-	.000	.000	.
	Wilks' Lambda	1.000	-	.000	37.000	.
	Hotelling's Trace	.000	-	.000	2.000	.
	Roy's Largest Root	.000	.000	13.000	30.000	1.000
Literacy-Difficulties * Exclusive-Support * Behaviour-Intervention	Pillai's Trace	.000	-	.000	.000	.
	Wilks' Lambda	1.000	-	.000	37.000	.
	Hotelling's Trace	.000	-	.000	2.000	.
	Roy's Largest Root	.000	.000	13.000	30.000	1.000
Literacy-Difficulties * Exclusive-Support * SEN-Intervention	Pillai's Trace	.000	-	.000	.000	.
	Wilks' Lambda	1.000	-	.000	37.000	.
	Hotelling's Trace	.000	-	.000	2.000	.
	Roy's Largest Root	.000	.000	13.000	30.000	1.000
Literacy-Difficulties * Exclusive-Support * English-Support	Pillai's Trace	.000	-	.000	.000	.
	Wilks' Lambda	1.000	-	.000	37.000	.
	Hotelling's Trace	.000	-	.000	2.000	.
	Roy's Largest Root	.000	.000	13.000	30.000	1.000
Literacy-Difficulties * Teaching-Assistant-Support * SEN-Intervention	Pillai's Trace	.000	-	.000	.000	.
	Wilks' Lambda	1.000	-	.000	37.000	.
	Hotelling's Trace	.000	-	.000	2.000	.
	Roy's Largest Root	.000	.000	13.000	30.000	1.000
Literacy-Difficulties * Teaching-Assistant-Support *English-Support	Pillai's Trace	.000	-	.000	.000	.
	Wilks' Lambda	1.000	-	.000	37.000	.
	Hotelling's Trace	.000	-	.000	2.000	.
	Roy's Largest Root	.000	.000	13.000	30.000	1.000

Table 8.17 MANOVA Multivariate Test Statistics

8.5.11.2 MANOVA Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Source	Dependent Variable	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Dyspraxia	Physical Ability	5.091	1	5.091	.048	.828
	Physical Appearance	339.555	1	339.555	3.949	.053
	Opposite Sex Relations	48.833	1	48.833	.559	.459
	Same Sex Relations	138.049	1	138.049	1.627	.209
	Parental Relations	93.103	1	93.103	.899	.348
	Honesty/Trustworthiness	40.668	1	40.668	.374	.544
	Emotional Stability	246.161	1	246.161	2.329	.134
	Mathematic Ability	268.829	1	268.829	2.966	.092
	Verbal Ability	700.811	1	700.811	7.018	.011
	General School	85.323	1	85.323	.788	.380
	General Self	474.442	1	474.442	6.237	.016
	SDQ-II Self Concept Total	650.602	1	650.602	6.697	.013
	BMSLSS Score	10.414	1	10.414	.140	.710
Dyscalculia	Physical Ability	29.270	1	29.270	.275	.603
	Physical Appearance	51.389	1	51.389	.598	.444
	Opposite Sex Relations	29.349	1	29.349	.336	.565
	Same Sex Relations	.020	1	.020	.000	.988
	Parental Relations	157.663	1	157.663	1.522	.224
	Honesty/Trustworthiness	59.009	1	59.009	.543	.465
	Emotional Stability	6.966	1	6.966	.066	.799
	Mathematic Ability	11.698	1	11.698	.129	.721
	Verbal Ability	53.641	1	53.641	.537	.468
	General School	23.116	1	23.116	.214	.646
	General Self	19.415	1	19.415	.255	.616
	SDQ-II Self Concept Total	26.616	1	26.616	.274	.603
	BMSLSS Score	3.004	1	3.004	.040	.842
Behaviour-Difficulties	Physical Ability	76.518	1	76.518	.718	.402
	Physical Appearance	54.216	1	54.216	.631	.432
	Opposite Sex Relations	3.720	1	3.720	.043	.838
	Same Sex Relations	19.552	1	19.552	.230	.634
	Parental Relations	.676	1	.676	.007	.936
	Honesty/Trustworthiness	18.674	1	18.674	.172	.680
	Emotional Stability	144.465	1	144.465	1.367	.249
	Mathematic Ability	8.107	1	8.107	.089	.766
	Verbal Ability	109.418	1	109.418	1.096	.301
	General School	22.707	1	22.707	.210	.649
	General Self	48.305	1	48.305	.635	.430
	SDQ-II Self Concept Total	13.841	1	13.841	.142	.708
	BMSLSS Score	20.711	1	20.711	.278	.601
Literacy-Difficulties	Physical Ability	65.374	1	65.374	.613	.438
	Physical Appearance	339.986	1	339.986	3.954	.053
	Opposite Sex Relations	368.679	1	368.679	4.217	.046
	Same Sex Relations	.933	1	.933	.011	.917
	Parental Relations	6.183	1	6.183	.060	.808
	Honesty/Trustworthiness	46.240	1	46.240	.426	.518
	Emotional Stability	4.633	1	4.633	.044	.835
	Mathematic Ability	4.618	1	4.618	.051	.822
	Verbal Ability	5.614	1	5.614	.056	.814
	General School	36.020	1	36.020	.333	.567
	General Self	31.930	1	31.930	.420	.520
	SDQ-II Self Concept Total	25.380	1	25.380	.261	.612
	BMSLSS Score	25.614	1	25.614	.344	.561

Table 8.18 MANOVA Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Inclusive-Support	Physical Ability	177.293	1	177.293	1.663	.204
	Physical Appearance	52.095	1	52.095	.606	.441
	Opposite Sex Relations	13.244	1	13.244	.151	.699
	Same Sex Relations	156.846	1	156.846	1.848	.181
	Parental Relations	.008	1	.008	.000	.993
	Honesty/Trustworthiness	190.354	1	190.354	1.752	.193
	Emotional Stability	214.343	1	214.343	2.028	.162
	Mathematic Ability	62.124	1	62.124	.685	.412
	Verbal Ability	62.316	1	62.316	.624	.434
	General School	.628	1	.628	.006	.940
	General Self	3.969	1	3.969	.052	.820
	SDQ-II Self Concept Total	4.230	1	4.230	.044	.836
	BMSLSS Score	10.456	1	10.456	.140	.710
Exclusive-Support	Physical Ability	24.768	1	24.768	.232	.632
	Physical Appearance	257.406	1	257.406	2.994	.091
	Opposite Sex Relations	25.133	1	25.133	.288	.595
	Same Sex Relations	231.858	1	231.858	2.732	.106
	Parental Relations	109.419	1	109.419	1.056	.310
	Honesty/Trustworthiness	117.457	1	117.457	1.081	.304
	Emotional Stability	101.374	1	101.374	.959	.333
	Mathematic Ability	171.602	1	171.602	1.893	.176
	Verbal Ability	3.795	1	3.795	.038	.846
	General School	85.724	1	85.724	.792	.379
	General Self	10.005	1	10.005	.132	.719
	SDQ-II Self Concept Total	5.006	1	5.006	.052	.821
	BMSLSS Score	8.379	1	8.379	.112	.739
Teaching-Assistant-Support	Physical Ability	61.875	1	61.875	.580	.450
	Physical Appearance	.202	1	.202	.002	.962
	Opposite Sex Relations	131.934	1	131.934	1.509	.226
	Same Sex Relations	123.143	1	123.143	1.451	.235
	Parental Relations	.595	1	.595	.006	.940
	Honesty/Trustworthiness	.088	1	.088	.001	.977
	Emotional Stability	10.314	1	10.314	.098	.756
	Mathematic Ability	369.143	1	369.143	4.072	.050
	Verbal Ability	408.275	1	408.275	4.089	.049
	General School	204.911	1	204.911	1.893	.176
	General Self	94.068	1	94.068	1.237	.272
	SDQ-II Self Concept Total	23.095	1	23.095	.238	.628
	BMSLSS Score	1.988	1	1.988	.027	.871
SEN-Intervention	Physical Ability	129.894	1	129.894	1.218	.276
	Physical Appearance	80.722	1	80.722	.939	.338
	Opposite Sex Relations	379.365	1	379.365	4.340	.043
	Same Sex Relations	445.044	1	445.044	5.244	.027
	Parental Relations	12.472	1	12.472	.120	.730
	Honesty/Trustworthiness	334.629	1	334.629	3.081	.086
	Emotional Stability	1.805	1	1.805	.017	.897
	Mathematic Ability	247.555	1	247.555	2.731	.106
	Verbal Ability	73.297	1	73.297	.734	.396
	General School	177.364	1	177.364	1.638	.207
	General Self	101.346	1	101.346	1.332	.255
	SDQ-II Self Concept Total	52.383	1	52.383	.539	.467
	BMSLSS Score	13.153	1	13.153	.177	.676
	Physical Ability	74.670	1	74.670	.700	.407
	Physical Appearance	25.607	1	25.607	.298	.588
	Opposite Sex Relations	45.295	1	45.295	.518	.476
	Same Sex Relations	1.743	1	1.743	.021	.887
	Parental Relations	47.411	1	47.411	.458	.502
	Honesty/Trustworthiness	48.039	1	48.039	.442	.510
	Emotional Stability	27.495	1	27.495	.260	.613
	Mathematic Ability	38.090	1	38.090	.420	.520
	Verbal Ability	2.447	1	2.447	.025	.876
	General School	26.377	1	26.377	.244	.624
	General Self	37.898	1	37.898	.498	.484
	SDQ-II Self Concept Total	85.056	1	85.056	.876	.355
	BMSLSS Score	4.874	1	4.874	.065	.799

Table 8.18 MANOVA Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Behaviour-Intervention	Physical Ability	305.023	1	305.023	2.861	.098
	Physical Appearance	.029	1	.029	.000	.985
	Opposite Sex Relations	27.542	1	27.542	.315	.578
	Same Sex Relations	573.499	1	573.499	6.757	.013
	Parental Relations	108.974	1	108.974	1.052	.311
	Honesty/Trustworthiness	42.897	1	42.897	.395	.533
	Emotional Stability	63.791	1	63.791	.604	.441
	Mathematic Ability	583.896	1	583.896	6.441	.015
	Verbal Ability	104.348	1	104.348	1.045	.312
	General School	54.567	1	54.567	.504	.482
	General Self	.248	1	.248	.003	.955
	SDQ-II Self Concept Total	11.996	1	11.996	.123	.727
	BMSLSS Score	25.964	1	25.964	.348	.558
Dyscalculia * Behaviour-Difficulties	Physical Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
	Physical Appearance	.000	0	.	.	.
	Opposite Sex Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
	Same Sex Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
	Parental Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
	Honesty/Trustworthiness	.000	0	.	.	.
	Emotional Stability	.000	0	.	.	.
	Mathematic Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
	Verbal Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
	General School	.000	0	.	.	.
	General Self	.000	0	.	.	.
	SDQ-II Self Concept Total	.000	0	.	.	.
	BMSLSS Score	.000	0	.	.	.
Dyscalculia * Literacy-Difficulties	Physical Ability	101.362	1	101.362	.951	.335
	Physical Appearance	2.969	1	2.969	.035	.853
	Opposite Sex Relations	122.984	1	122.984	1.407	.242
	Same Sex Relations	82.946	1	82.946	.977	.328
	Parental Relations	790.575	1	790.575	7.630	.008
	Honesty/Trustworthiness	2.204	1	2.204	.020	.887
	Emotional Stability	6.418	1	6.418	.061	.807
	Mathematic Ability	71.147	1	71.147	.785	.381
	Verbal Ability	22.724	1	22.724	.228	.636
	General School	33.079	1	33.079	.306	.583
	General Self	55.686	1	55.686	.732	.397
	SDQ-II Self Concept Total	74.915	1	74.915	.771	.385
	BMSLSS Score	3.043	1	3.043	.041	.841
Dyspraxia * Behaviour-Difficulties	Physical Ability	116.584	1	116.584	1.093	.302
	Physical Appearance	299.110	1	299.110	3.479	.069
	Opposite Sex Relations	13.049	1	13.049	.149	.701
	Same Sex Relations	1.496	1	1.496	.018	.895
	Parental Relations	22.672	1	22.672	.219	.642
	Honesty/Trustworthiness	9.930	1	9.930	.091	.764
	Emotional Stability	11.894	1	11.894	.113	.739
	Mathematic Ability	221.435	1	221.435	2.443	.125
	Verbal Ability	42.122	1	42.122	.422	.519
	General School	373.570	1	373.570	3.450	.070
	General Self	36.373	1	36.373	.478	.493
	SDQ-II Self Concept Total	122.409	1	122.409	1.260	.268
	BMSLSS Score	1.215	1	1.215	.016	.899
Inclusive-Support * SEN-Intervention	Physical Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
	Physical Appearance	.000	0	.	.	.
	Opposite Sex Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
	Same Sex Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
	Parental Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
	Honesty/Trustworthiness	.000	0	.	.	.
	Emotional Stability	.000	0	.	.	.
	Mathematic Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
	Verbal Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
	General School	.000	0	.	.	.
	General Self	.000	0	.	.	.
	SDQ-II Self Concept Total	.000	0	.	.	.
	BMSLSS Score	.000	0	.	.	.

Table 8.18 MANOVA Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

	Physical Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
	Physical Appearance	.000	0	.	.	.
	Opposite Sex Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
	Same Sex Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
	Parental Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
	Honesty/Trustworthiness	.000	0	.	.	.
Inclusive-Support *	Emotional Stability	.000	0	.	.	.
	Mathematic Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
	Verbal Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
	General School	.000	0	.	.	.
	General Self	.000	0	.	.	.
	SDQ-II Self Concept Total	.000	0	.	.	.
	BMSLSS Score	.000	0	.	.	.
	Physical Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
	Physical Appearance	.000	0	.	.	.
	Opposite Sex Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
	Same Sex Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
	Parental Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
Exclusive-Support *	Honesty/Trustworthiness	.000	0	.	.	.
Behaviour-Intervention	Emotional Stability	.000	0	.	.	.
	Mathematic Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
	Verbal Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
	General School	.000	0	.	.	.
	General Self	.000	0	.	.	.
	SDQ-II Self Concept Total	.000	0	.	.	.
	BMSLSS Score	.000	0	.	.	.
	Physical Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
	Physical Appearance	.000	0	.	.	.
	Opposite Sex Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
	Same Sex Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
	Parental Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
Exclusive-Support *	Honesty/Trustworthiness	.000	0	.	.	.
SEN-Intervention	Emotional Stability	.000	0	.	.	.
	Mathematic Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
	Verbal Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
	General School	.000	0	.	.	.
	General Self	.000	0	.	.	.
	SDQ-II Self Concept Total	.000	0	.	.	.
	BMSLSS Score	.000	0	.	.	.
	Physical Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
	Physical Appearance	.000	0	.	.	.
	Opposite Sex Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
	Same Sex Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
	Parental Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
Exclusive-Support *	Honesty/Trustworthiness	.000	0	.	.	.
English Support	Emotional Stability	.000	0	.	.	.
	Mathematic Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
	Verbal Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
	General School	.000	0	.	.	.
	General Self	.000	0	.	.	.
	SDQ-II Self Concept Total	.000	0	.	.	.
	BMSLSS Score	.000	0	.	.	.
	Physical Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
	Physical Appearance	.000	0	.	.	.
	Opposite Sex Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
	Same Sex Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
Teaching-Assistant-Support *	Parental Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
	Honesty/Trustworthiness	.000	0	.	.	.
	Emotional Stability	.000	0	.	.	.
SEN-Intervention	Mathematic Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
	Verbal Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
	General School	.000	0	.	.	.
	General Self	.000	0	.	.	.
	SDQ-II Self Concept Total	.000	0	.	.	.
	BMSLSS Score	.000	0	.	.	.

Table 8.18 MANOVA Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

	Physical Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
	Physical Appearance	.000	0	.	.	.
	Opposite Sex Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
	Same Sex Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
	Parental Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
Teaching-Assistant-Support *	Honesty/Trustworthiness	.000	0	.	.	.
	Emotional Stability	.000	0	.	.	.
	Mathematic Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
	Verbal Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
	General School	.000	0	.	.	.
	General Self	.000	0	.	.	.
	SDQ-II Self Concept Total	.000	0	.	.	.
	BMSLSS Score	.000	0	.	.	.
	Physical Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
	Physical Appearance	.000	0	.	.	.
	Opposite Sex Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
	Same Sex Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
Teaching-Assistant-Support * Behaviour-Intervention	Parental Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
	Honesty/Trustworthiness	.000	0	.	.	.
	Emotional Stability	.000	0	.	.	.
	Mathematic Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
	Verbal Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
	General School	.000	0	.	.	.
	General Self	.000	0	.	.	.
	SDQ-II Self Concept Total	.000	0	.	.	.
	BMSLSS Score	.000	0	.	.	.
	Physical Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
	Physical Appearance	.000	0	.	.	.
	Opposite Sex Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
	Same Sex Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
Dyscalculia * Behaviour-Difficulties * Inclusive-Support	Parental Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
	Honesty/Trustworthiness	.000	0	.	.	.
	Emotional Stability	.000	0	.	.	.
	Mathematic Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
	Verbal Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
	General School	.000	0	.	.	.
	General Self	.000	0	.	.	.
	SDQ-II Self Concept Total	.000	0	.	.	.
	BMSLSS Score	.000	0	.	.	.
	Physical Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
	Physical Appearance	.000	0	.	.	.
	Opposite Sex Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
	Same Sex Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
Dyscalculia * Behaviour-Difficulties * Exclusive-Support	Parental Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
	Honesty/Trustworthiness	.000	0	.	.	.
	Emotional Stability	.000	0	.	.	.
	Mathematic Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
	Verbal Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
	General School	.000	0	.	.	.
	General Self	.000	0	.	.	.
	SDQ-II Self Concept Total	.000	0	.	.	.
	BMSLSS Score	.000	0	.	.	.
	Physical Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
	Physical Appearance	.000	0	.	.	.
	Opposite Sex Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
	Same Sex Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
Dyscalculia * Behaviour-Difficulties * Teaching-Assistant-Support	Parental Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
	Honesty/Trustworthiness	.000	0	.	.	.
	Emotional Stability	.000	0	.	.	.
	Mathematic Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
	Verbal Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
	General School	.000	0	.	.	.
	General Self	.000	0	.	.	.
	SDQ-II Self Concept Total	.000	0	.	.	.
	BMSLSS Score	.000	0	.	.	.

Table 8.18 MANOVA Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

	Physical Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
	Physical Appearance	.000	0	.	.	.
	Opposite Sex Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
	Same Sex Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
Dyscalculia	Parental Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
* Behaviour-	Honesty/Trustworthiness	.000	0	.	.	.
Difficulties *	Emotional Stability	.000	0	.	.	.
SEN-	Mathematic Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
Intervention	Verbal Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
	General School	.000	0	.	.	.
	General Self	.000	0	.	.	.
	SDQ-II Self Concept Total	.000	0	.	.	.
	BMSLSS Score	.000	0	.	.	.
	Physical Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
	Physical Appearance	.000	0	.	.	.
	Opposite Sex Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
	Same Sex Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
	Parental Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
Dyscalculia	Honesty/Trustworthiness	.000	0	.	.	.
* Behaviour-	Emotional Stability	.000	0	.	.	.
Difficulties *	Mathematic Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
	Verbal Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
	General School	.000	0	.	.	.
	General Self	.000	0	.	.	.
	SDQ-II Self Concept Total	.000	0	.	.	.
	BMSLSS Score	.000	0	.	.	.
	Physical Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
	Physical Appearance	.000	0	.	.	.
	Opposite Sex Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
	Same Sex Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
Dyscalculia	Parental Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
* Behaviour-	Honesty/Trustworthiness	.000	0	.	.	.
Difficulties *	Emotional Stability	.000	0	.	.	.
Behaviour-	Mathematic Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
Intervention	Verbal Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
	General School	.000	0	.	.	.
	General Self	.000	0	.	.	.
	SDQ-II Self Concept Total	.000	0	.	.	.
	BMSLSS Score	.000	0	.	.	.
	Physical Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
	Physical Appearance	.000	0	.	.	.
	Opposite Sex Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
	Same Sex Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
Dyscalculia	Parental Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
* Literacy-	Honesty/Trustworthiness	.000	0	.	.	.
Difficulties *	Emotional Stability	.000	0	.	.	.
Inclusive-	Mathematic Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
Support	Verbal Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
	General School	.000	0	.	.	.
	General Self	.000	0	.	.	.
	SDQ-II Self Concept Total	.000	0	.	.	.
	BMSLSS Score	.000	0	.	.	.
	Physical Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
	Physical Appearance	.000	0	.	.	.
	Opposite Sex Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
	Same Sex Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
Dyscalculia	Parental Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
* Literacy-	Honesty/Trustworthiness	.000	0	.	.	.
Difficulties *	Emotional Stability	.000	0	.	.	.
Exclusive-	Mathematic Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
Support	Verbal Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
	General School	.000	0	.	.	.
	General Self	.000	0	.	.	.
	SDQ-II Self Concept Total	.000	0	.	.	.
	BMSLSS Score	.000	0	.	.	.

Table 8.18 MANOVA Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dyscalculia * Literacy-Difficulties * Teaching-Assistant-Support	Physical Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
	Physical Appearance	.000	0	.	.	.
	Opposite Sex Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
	Same Sex Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
	Parental Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
	Honesty/Trustworthiness	.000	0	.	.	.
	Emotional Stability	.000	0	.	.	.
	Mathematic Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
	Verbal Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
	General School	.000	0	.	.	.
	General Self	.000	0	.	.	.
	SDQ-II Self Concept Total	.000	0	.	.	.
	BMSLSS Score	.000	0	.	.	.
Dyscalculia * Literacy-Difficulties * SEN-Intervention	Physical Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
	Physical Appearance	.000	0	.	.	.
	Opposite Sex Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
	Same Sex Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
	Parental Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
	Honesty/Trustworthiness	.000	0	.	.	.
	Emotional Stability	.000	0	.	.	.
	Mathematic Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
	Verbal Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
	General School	.000	0	.	.	.
	General Self	.000	0	.	.	.
	SDQ-II Self Concept Total	.000	0	.	.	.
	BMSLSS Score	.000	0	.	.	.
Dyscalculia * Literacy-Difficulties *	Physical Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
	Physical Appearance	.000	0	.	.	.
	Opposite Sex Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
	Same Sex Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
	Parental Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
	Honesty/Trustworthiness	.000	0	.	.	.
	Emotional Stability	.000	0	.	.	.
	Mathematic Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
	Verbal Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
	General School	.000	0	.	.	.
	General Self	.000	0	.	.	.
	SDQ-II Self Concept Total	.000	0	.	.	.
	BMSLSS Score	.000	0	.	.	.
Dyscalculia * Literacy-Difficulties * Behaviour-Intervention	Physical Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
	Physical Appearance	.000	0	.	.	.
	Opposite Sex Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
	Same Sex Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
	Parental Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
	Honesty/Trustworthiness	.000	0	.	.	.
	Emotional Stability	.000	0	.	.	.
	Mathematic Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
	Verbal Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
	General School	.000	0	.	.	.
	General Self	.000	0	.	.	.
	SDQ-II Self Concept Total	.000	0	.	.	.
	BMSLSS Score	.000	0	.	.	.
Dyspraxia * Behaviour-Difficulties * Inclusive-Support	Physical Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
	Physical Appearance	.000	0	.	.	.
	Opposite Sex Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
	Same Sex Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
	Parental Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
	Honesty/Trustworthiness	.000	0	.	.	.
	Emotional Stability	.000	0	.	.	.
	Mathematic Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
	Verbal Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
	General School	.000	0	.	.	.
	General Self	.000	0	.	.	.
	SDQ-II Self Concept Total	.000	0	.	.	.
	BMSLSS Score	.000	0	.	.	.

Table 8.18 MANOVA Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

	Physical Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
	Physical Appearance	.000	0	.	.	.
	Opposite Sex Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
	Same Sex Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
Dyspraxia *	Parental Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
Behaviour-	Honesty/Trustworthiness	.000	0	.	.	.
Difficulties *	Emotional Stability	.000	0	.	.	.
Exclusive-	Mathematic Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
Support	Verbal Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
	General School	.000	0	.	.	.
	General Self	.000	0	.	.	.
	SDQ-II Self Concept Total	.000	0	.	.	.
	BMSLSS Score	.000	0	.	.	.
	Physical Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
	Physical Appearance	.000	0	.	.	.
	Opposite Sex Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
	Same Sex Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
Dyspraxia *	Parental Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
Behaviour-	Honesty/Trustworthiness	.000	0	.	.	.
Difficulties *	Emotional Stability	.000	0	.	.	.
Teaching-	Mathematic Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
Assistant-	Verbal Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
Support	General School	.000	0	.	.	.
	General Self	.000	0	.	.	.
	SDQ-II Self Concept Total	.000	0	.	.	.
	BMSLSS Score	.000	0	.	.	.
	Physical Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
	Physical Appearance	.000	0	.	.	.
	Opposite Sex Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
	Same Sex Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
Dyspraxia *	Parental Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
Behaviour-	Honesty/Trustworthiness	.000	0	.	.	.
Difficulties *	Emotional Stability	.000	0	.	.	.
SEN-	Mathematic Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
Intervention	Verbal Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
	General School	.000	0	.	.	.
	General Self	.000	0	.	.	.
	SDQ-II Self Concept Total	.000	0	.	.	.
	BMSLSS Score	.000	0	.	.	.
	Physical Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
	Physical Appearance	.000	0	.	.	.
	Opposite Sex Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
	Same Sex Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
	Parental Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
Dyspraxia *	Honesty/Trustworthiness	.000	0	.	.	.
Behaviour-	Emotional Stability	.000	0	.	.	.
Difficulties *	Mathematic Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
	Verbal Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
	General School	.000	0	.	.	.
	General Self	.000	0	.	.	.
	SDQ-II Self Concept Total	.000	0	.	.	.
	BMSLSS Score	.000	0	.	.	.
	Physical Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
	Physical Appearance	.000	0	.	.	.
	Opposite Sex Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
	Same Sex Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
Dyspraxia *	Parental Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
Behaviour-	Honesty/Trustworthiness	.000	0	.	.	.
Difficulties *	Emotional Stability	.000	0	.	.	.
Behaviour-	Mathematic Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
Intervention	Verbal Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
	General School	.000	0	.	.	.
	General Self	.000	0	.	.	.
	SDQ-II Self Concept Total	.000	0	.	.	.
	BMSLSS Score	.000	0	.	.	.

Table 8.18 MANOVA Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

	Physical Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
	Physical Appearance	.000	0	.	.	.
	Opposite Sex Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
	Same Sex Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
Dyspraxia *	Parental Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
Literacy-	Honesty/Trustworthiness	.000	0	.	.	.
Difficulties *	Emotional Stability	.000	0	.	.	.
Inclusive-	Mathematic Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
Support	Verbal Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
	General School	.000	0	.	.	.
	General Self	.000	0	.	.	.
	SDQ-II Self Concept Total	.000	0	.	.	.
	BMSLSS Score	.000	0	.	.	.
	Physical Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
	Physical Appearance	.000	0	.	.	.
	Opposite Sex Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
	Same Sex Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
Dyspraxia *	Parental Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
Literacy-	Honesty/Trustworthiness	.000	0	.	.	.
Difficulties *	Emotional Stability	.000	0	.	.	.
Exclusive-	Mathematic Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
Support	Verbal Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
	General School	.000	0	.	.	.
	General Self	.000	0	.	.	.
	SDQ-II Self Concept Total	.000	0	.	.	.
	BMSLSS Score	.000	0	.	.	.
	Physical Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
	Physical Appearance	.000	0	.	.	.
	Opposite Sex Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
Dyspraxia *	Same Sex Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
Literacy-	Parental Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
Difficulties *	Honesty/Trustworthiness	.000	0	.	.	.
Teaching-	Emotional Stability	.000	0	.	.	.
Assistant-	Mathematic Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
Support	Verbal Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
	General School	.000	0	.	.	.
	General Self	.000	0	.	.	.
	SDQ-II Self Concept Total	.000	0	.	.	.
	BMSLSS Score	.000	0	.	.	.
	Physical Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
	Physical Appearance	.000	0	.	.	.
	Opposite Sex Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
	Same Sex Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
Dyspraxia *	Parental Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
Literacy-	Honesty/Trustworthiness	.000	0	.	.	.
Difficulties *	Emotional Stability	.000	0	.	.	.
SEN-	Mathematic Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
Intervention	Verbal Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
	General School	.000	0	.	.	.
	General Self	.000	0	.	.	.
	SDQ-II Self Concept Total	.000	0	.	.	.
	BMSLSS Score	.000	0	.	.	.
	Physical Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
	Physical Appearance	.000	0	.	.	.
	Opposite Sex Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
	Same Sex Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
	Parental Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
Dyspraxia *	Honesty/Trustworthiness	.000	0	.	.	.
Literacy-	Emotional Stability	.000	0	.	.	.
Difficulties *	Mathematic Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
	Verbal Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
	General School	.000	0	.	.	.
	General Self	.000	0	.	.	.
	SDQ-II Self Concept Total	.000	0	.	.	.
	BMSLSS Score	.000	0	.	.	.

Table 8.18 MANOVA Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

	Physical Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
	Physical Appearance	.000	0	.	.	.
	Opposite Sex Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
	Same Sex Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
Dyspraxia *	Parental Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
Literacy-	Honesty/Trustworthiness	.000	0	.	.	.
Difficulties *	Emotional Stability	.000	0	.	.	.
Behaviour-	Mathematic Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
Intervention	Verbal Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
	General School	.000	0	.	.	.
	General Self	.000	0	.	.	.
	SDQ-II Self Concept Total	.000	0	.	.	.
	BMSLSS Score	.000	0	.	.	.
	Physical Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
	Physical Appearance	.000	0	.	.	.
	Opposite Sex Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
	Same Sex Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
Behaviour-	Parental Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
Difficulties *	Honesty/Trustworthiness	.000	0	.	.	.
Inclusive-	Emotional Stability	.000	0	.	.	.
Support *	Mathematic Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
SEN-	Verbal Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
Intervention	General School	.000	0	.	.	.
	General Self	.000	0	.	.	.
	SDQ-II Self Concept Total	.000	0	.	.	.
	BMSLSS Score	.000	0	.	.	.
	Physical Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
	Physical Appearance	.000	0	.	.	.
	Opposite Sex Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
	Same Sex Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
Behaviour-	Parental Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
Difficulties *	Honesty/Trustworthiness	.000	0	.	.	.
Inclusive-	Emotional Stability	.000	0	.	.	.
Support *	Mathematic Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
	Verbal Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
	General School	.000	0	.	.	.
	General Self	.000	0	.	.	.
	SDQ-II Self Concept Total	.000	0	.	.	.
	BMSLSS Score	.000	0	.	.	.
	Physical Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
	Physical Appearance	.000	0	.	.	.
	Opposite Sex Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
	Same Sex Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
Behaviour-	Parental Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
Difficulties *	Honesty/Trustworthiness	.000	0	.	.	.
Inclusive-	Emotional Stability	.000	0	.	.	.
Support *	Mathematic Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
Behaviour-	Verbal Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
Intervention	General School	.000	0	.	.	.
	General Self	.000	0	.	.	.
	SDQ-II Self Concept Total	.000	0	.	.	.
	BMSLSS Score	.000	0	.	.	.
	Physical Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
	Physical Appearance	.000	0	.	.	.
	Opposite Sex Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
	Same Sex Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
Behaviour-	Parental Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
Difficulties *	Honesty/Trustworthiness	.000	0	.	.	.
Exclusive-	Emotional Stability	.000	0	.	.	.
Support *	Mathematic Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
Behaviour-	Verbal Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
Intervention	General School	.000	0	.	.	.
	General Self	.000	0	.	.	.
	SDQ-II Self Concept Total	.000	0	.	.	.
	BMSLSS Score	.000	0	.	.	.

Table 8.18 MANOVA Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Behaviour-Difficulties * Exclusive-Support * SEN-Intervention	Physical Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
	Physical Appearance	.000	0	.	.	.
	Opposite Sex Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
	Same Sex Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
	Parental Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
	Honesty/Trustworthiness	.000	0	.	.	.
	Emotional Stability	.000	0	.	.	.
	Mathematic Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
	Verbal Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
	General School	.000	0	.	.	.
	General Self	.000	0	.	.	.
	SDQ-II Self Concept Total	.000	0	.	.	.
	BMSLSS Score	.000	0	.	.	.
Behaviour-Difficulties * Exclusive-Support *English-Support	Physical Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
	Physical Appearance	.000	0	.	.	.
	Opposite Sex Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
	Same Sex Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
	Parental Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
	Honesty/Trustworthiness	.000	0	.	.	.
	Emotional Stability	.000	0	.	.	.
	Mathematic Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
	Verbal Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
	General School	.000	0	.	.	.
	General Self	.000	0	.	.	.
	SDQ-II Self Concept Total	.000	0	.	.	.
	BMSLSS Score	.000	0	.	.	.
Behaviour-Difficulties * Teaching-Assistant-Support * SEN-Intervention	Physical Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
	Physical Appearance	.000	0	.	.	.
	Opposite Sex Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
	Same Sex Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
	Parental Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
	Honesty/Trustworthiness	.000	0	.	.	.
	Emotional Stability	.000	0	.	.	.
	Mathematic Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
	Verbal Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
	General School	.000	0	.	.	.
	General Self	.000	0	.	.	.
	SDQ-II Self Concept Total	.000	0	.	.	.
	BMSLSS Score	.000	0	.	.	.
Behaviour-Difficulties * Teaching-Assistant-Support *	Physical Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
	Physical Appearance	.000	0	.	.	.
	Opposite Sex Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
	Same Sex Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
	Parental Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
	Honesty/Trustworthiness	.000	0	.	.	.
	Emotional Stability	.000	0	.	.	.
	Mathematic Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
	Verbal Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
	General School	.000	0	.	.	.
	General Self	.000	0	.	.	.
	SDQ-II Self Concept Total	.000	0	.	.	.
	BMSLSS Score	.000	0	.	.	.
Behaviour-Difficulties * Teaching-Assistant-Support * Behaviour-Intervention	Physical Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
	Physical Appearance	.000	0	.	.	.
	Opposite Sex Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
	Same Sex Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
	Parental Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
	Honesty/Trustworthiness	.000	0	.	.	.
	Emotional Stability	.000	0	.	.	.
	Mathematic Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
	Verbal Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
	General School	.000	0	.	.	.
	General Self	.000	0	.	.	.
	SDQ-II Self Concept Total	.000	0	.	.	.
	BMSLSS Score	.000	0	.	.	.

Table 8.18 MANOVA Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

	Physical Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
	Physical Appearance	.000	0	.	.	.
	Opposite Sex Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
	Same Sex Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
Literacy-Difficulties * Inclusive-Support * SEN-Intervention	Parental Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
	Honesty/Trustworthiness	.000	0	.	.	.
	Emotional Stability	.000	0	.	.	.
	Mathematic Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
	Verbal Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
	General School	.000	0	.	.	.
	General Self	.000	0	.	.	.
	SDQ-II Self Concept Total	.000	0	.	.	.
	BMSLSS Score	.000	0	.	.	.
	Physical Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
	Physical Appearance	.000	0	.	.	.
	Opposite Sex Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
	Same Sex Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
Literacy-Difficulties * Inclusive-Support *	Parental Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
	Honesty/Trustworthiness	.000	0	.	.	.
	Emotional Stability	.000	0	.	.	.
	Mathematic Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
	Verbal Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
	General School	.000	0	.	.	.
	General Self	.000	0	.	.	.
	SDQ-II Self Concept Total	.000	0	.	.	.
	BMSLSS Score	.000	0	.	.	.
	Physical Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
	Physical Appearance	.000	0	.	.	.
	Opposite Sex Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
	Same Sex Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
Literacy-Difficulties * Inclusive-Support * Behaviour-Intervention	Parental Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
	Honesty/Trustworthiness	.000	0	.	.	.
	Emotional Stability	.000	0	.	.	.
	Mathematic Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
	Verbal Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
	General School	.000	0	.	.	.
	General Self	.000	0	.	.	.
	SDQ-II Self Concept Total	.000	0	.	.	.
	BMSLSS Score	.000	0	.	.	.
	Physical Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
	Physical Appearance	.000	0	.	.	.
	Opposite Sex Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
	Same Sex Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
Literacy-Difficulties * Exclusive-Support * Behaviour-Intervention	Parental Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
	Honesty/Trustworthiness	.000	0	.	.	.
	Emotional Stability	.000	0	.	.	.
	Mathematic Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
	Verbal Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
	General School	.000	0	.	.	.
	General Self	.000	0	.	.	.
	SDQ-II Self Concept Total	.000	0	.	.	.
	BMSLSS Score	.000	0	.	.	.
	Physical Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
	Physical Appearance	.000	0	.	.	.
	Opposite Sex Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
	Same Sex Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
Literacy-Difficulties * Exclusive-Support * SEN-Intervention	Parental Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
	Honesty/Trustworthiness	.000	0	.	.	.
	Emotional Stability	.000	0	.	.	.
	Mathematic Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
	Verbal Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
	General School	.000	0	.	.	.
	General Self	.000	0	.	.	.
	SDQ-II Self Concept Total	.000	0	.	.	.
	BMSLSS Score	.000	0	.	.	.

Table 8.18 MANOVA Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Literacy-Difficulties * Exclusive-Support * English-Support	Physical Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
	Physical Appearance	.000	0	.	.	.
	Opposite Sex Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
	Same Sex Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
	Parental Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
	Honesty/Trustworthiness	.000	0	.	.	.
	Emotional Stability	.000	0	.	.	.
	Mathematic Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
	Verbal Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
	General School	.000	0	.	.	.
	General Self	.000	0	.	.	.
	SDQ-II Self Concept Total	.000	0	.	.	.
	BMSLSS Score	.000	0	.	.	.
Literacy-Difficulties * Teaching-Assistant-Support * English-Support	Physical Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
	Physical Appearance	.000	0	.	.	.
	Opposite Sex Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
	Same Sex Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
	Parental Relations	.000	0	.	.	.
	Honesty/Trustworthiness	.000	0	.	.	.
	Emotional Stability	.000	0	.	.	.
	Mathematic Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
	Verbal Ability	.000	0	.	.	.
	General School	.000	0	.	.	.
	General Self	.000	0	.	.	.
	SDQ-II Self Concept Total	.000	0	.	.	.
	BMSLSS Score	.000	0	.	.	.
Error			43			

Table 8.18 MANOVA Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

8.5.11.3 Psychometric / Biographical Multiple Regression Coefficient Statistics

Model		Unstandardized β	Unstandardized Std. Error	t	Sig.	Bootstrap Bias	Bootstrap Std. Error	Bootstrap Sig.(2)	95% Confidence Interval Lower	95% Confidence Interval Upper
Physical Ability	(Constant)	47.268	3.367	14.04	0	.004	3.405	.001	4.36	54.067
	Dyspraxia	7.188	4.689	1.533	.13	.064	5.361	.172	-3.835	17.354
	Dyscalculia	-2.157	3.477	-.621	.537	-.145	3.024	.458	-8.46	3.701
	Behaviour-Difficulties	.547	2.911	.188	.852	-.082	2.899	.865	-5.146	6.056
	Literacy-Difficulties	1.426	2.844	.501	.618	-.239	3.136	.649	-4.963	7.091
	Inclusive-Support	4.152	3.744	1.109	.272	.123	3.92	.299	-3.313	12.228
	Exclusive-Support	-2.758	3.868	-.713	.479	.037	3.817	.471	-1.265	4.541
	TA Support	-1.898	4.037	-.47	.64	.023	3.624	.605	-8.833	5.699
	SEN-Intervention	7.423	5.494	1.351	.182	.09	4.263	.081	.086	16.772
	English-Support	3.655	3.075	1.189	.239	.192	2.291	.13	-.574	8.412
	Behaviour-Intervention	1.369	4.841	2.142	.036	-.128	3.065	.003	4.184	16.326
Physical Appearance	(Constant)	56.976	3.27	17.423	0	-.181	3.261	.001	49.683	62.872
	Dyspraxia	3.45	4.554	.758	.452	-.125	5.082	.493	-6.442	13.185
	Dyscalculia	-7.579	3.377	-2.244	.028	.044	4.032	.06	-15.443	.065
	Behaviour-Difficulties	-3.494	2.828	-1.236	.221	-.09	3.248	.298	-1.171	2.779
	Literacy-Difficulties	.508	2.763	.184	.855	.165	2.285	.805	-3.904	5.357
	Inclusive-Support	-3.309	3.636	-.91	.366	.152	3.541	.358	-9.605	4.231
	Exclusive-Support	-6.72	3.758	-1.788	.079	.237	3.896	.089	-14.293	1.574
	TA Support	-1.203	3.921	-.307	.76	.13	3.221	.705	-7.105	5.643
	SEN-Intervention	4.011	5.337	.752	.455	-.177	4.592	.349	-6.209	12.515
	English-Support	-4.369	2.987	-1.463	.149	-.221	3.271	.2	-11.145	1.988
	Behaviour-Intervention	-3.138	4.702	-.667	.507	.173	6.691	.622	-16.453	11.534
Opposite Sex Relations	(Constant)	49.123	3.54	13.875	0	-.085	3.742	.001	41.855	56.698
	Dyspraxia	.978	4.93	.198	.843	.132	5.307	.85	-9.223	12.021
	Dyscalculia	1.997	3.656	.546	.587	.063	3.546	.558	-4.683	9.159
	Behaviour-Difficulties	-1.126	3.061	-.368	.714	-.005	3.255	.723	-7.879	5.502
	Literacy-Difficulties	-3.034	2.991	-1.014	.314	-.052	2.788	.284	-8.516	2.165

Table 8.19 Psychometric / Biographical Multiple Regression Coefficient Statistics

	Inclusive-Support	.938	3.937	.238	.813	-.062	4.1	.824	-7.322	8.874
	Exclusive-Support	-3.344	4.068	.822	.414	.425	4.199	.439	-4.691	11.893
	TA Support	-8.687	4.245	2.046	.045	.18	3.531	.014	1.586	15.582
	SEN-Intervention	-2.708	5.777	-.469	.641	-.411	6.873	.714	-2.321	7.843
	English-Support	-3.072	3.234	-.95	.346	-.362	3.18	.341	-9.793	2.774
	Behaviour-Intervention	-1.548	5.09	-.304	.762	.015	7.868	.844	-18.216	12.027
Same Sex Relations	(Constant)	43.962	3.39	12.967	0	-.054	3.712	.001	37.388	51.919
	Dyspraxia	8.366	4.721	1.772	.081	-.126	4.402	.051	-.321	16.644
	Dyscalculia	-1.454	3.501	-.415	.679	.036	3.789	.691	-8.624	5.937
	Behaviour-Difficulties	-2.923	2.932	-.997	.323	.181	3.107	.357	-8.931	3.389
	Literacy-Difficulties	2.02	2.864	.705	.483	.001	2.377	.412	-2.502	6.838
	Inclusive-Support	-5.542	3.77	1.47	.147	.08	3.927	.172	-2.391	12.898
	Exclusive-Support	-9.696	3.896	2.489	.016	.442	4.63	.043	.908	18.862
	TA Support	2.69	4.065	.662	.511	-.203	5.2	.59	-7.746	12.531
	SEN-Intervention	-9.8	5.533	-1.771	.081	-.856	7.093	.177	-23.847	5.363
	English-Support	-4.137	3.097	-1.336	.186	-.732	3.627	.277	-12.192	1.99
	Behaviour-Intervention	6.578	4.874	1.349	.182	.468	7.646	.345	-11.425	21.256
Parental Relations	(Constant)	5.854	3.476	14.631	0	-.009	3.032	.001	44.877	57.001
	Dyspraxia	-.406	4.841	-.084	.933	.084	6.112	.949	-13.827	1.597
	Dyscalculia	1.53	3.589	.426	.671	.141	3.498	.645	-5.492	8.656
	Behaviour-Difficulties	-.413	3.006	-.138	.891	-.192	3.354	.881	-7.043	6.254
	Literacy-Difficulties	-3.437	2.936	-1.171	.246	-.123	3.43	.302	-1.367	3.16
	Inclusive-Support	-1.259	3.865	-.326	.746	-.121	3.643	.739	-8.76	5.885
	Exclusive-Support	3.589	3.994	.899	.372	.122	3.371	.275	-2.93	1.813
	TA Support	.076	4.168	.018	.986	.093	3.878	.977	-7.192	7.789
	SEN-Intervention	1.284	5.672	.226	.822	-.072	3.398	.678	-4.598	9.307
	English-Support	-5.316	3.175	-1.674	.099	.127	2.623	.051	-1.634	-.308
	Behaviour-Intervention	-5.405	4.997	-1.082	.284	-.26	6.146	.375	-18.562	5.029

Table 8.19 Psychometric / Biographical Multiple Regression Coefficient Statistics

Honesty/ Trustworthiness	(Constant)	49.963	3.337	14.971	0	0.083	3.394	0.001	43.696	57.516
	Dyspraxia	0.781	4.648	0.168	0.867	0.142	3.297	0.792	-6.022	7.279
	Dyscalculia	-7.886	3.446	-2.288	0.026	-.045	3.013	0.006	-13.805	-1.93
	Behaviour-Difficulties	2.2	2.886	0.762	0.449	0.038	3.037	0.481	-4.182	8.033
	Literacy-Difficulties	-1.009	2.819	-.358	0.722	-.238	2.977	0.763	-7.031	4.512
	Inclusive-Support	-.996	3.711	-.268	0.789	-.087	3.352	0.776	-7.852	5.555
	Exclusive-Support	0.124	3.835	0.032	0.974	-.022	4.101	0.979	-7.893	8.385
	TA Support	-1.138	4.002	-.284	0.777	-.037	3.888	0.74	-9.007	6.205
	SEN-Intervention	9.887	5.446	1.815	0.074	0.012	4.137	0.025	2.083	18.635
	English-Support	2.776	3.048	0.911	0.366	0.075	3.6	0.425	-5.015	9.631
	Behaviour-Intervention	4.527	4.799	0.943	0.349	-.658	8.767	0.617	-15.375	19.847
Emotional Stability	(Constant)	46.443	3.543	13.11	0	-.079	3.422	0.001	39.686	53.535
	Dyspraxia	7.582	4.934	1.537	0.129	0.059	5.274	0.145	-2.512	18.028
	Dyscalculia	-2.162	3.658	-.591	0.557	-.214	3.362	0.512	-8.994	4.198
	Behaviour-Difficulties	1.967	3.063	0.642	0.523	0.007	3.415	0.543	-4.366	9.027
	Literacy-Difficulties	-2.733	2.993	-.913	0.365	-.191	3.518	0.436	-9.611	4.479
	Inclusive-Support	5.095	3.939	1.293	0.201	0.183	3.539	0.168	-1.712	12.356
	Exclusive-Support	3.294	4.071	0.809	0.422	0.376	4.629	0.487	-5.465	12.279
	TA Support	-.904	4.248	-.213	0.832	-.03	3.661	0.771	-7.887	6.859
	SEN-Intervention	8.737	5.781	1.511	0.136	-.186	5.481	0.114	-2.085	18.984
	English-Support	-1.779	3.236	-.55	0.584	-.083	3.752	0.621	-9.307	5.713
	Behaviour-Intervention	-.849	5.093	-.167	0.868	-.295	3.35	0.782	-7.75	5.338
Mathematic Ability	(Constant)	56.68	3.398	16.679	0	0.099	2.703	0.001	51.624	62.331
	Dyspraxia	3.731	4.733	0.788	0.433	0.3	4.521	0.388	-4.007	14.318
	Dyscalculia	-4.195	3.509	-1.195	0.237	-.304	3.954	0.263	-12.992	3.164
	Behaviour-Difficulties	-2.792	2.939	-.95	0.346	-.492	2.966	0.365	-9.086	2.728
	Literacy-Difficulties	-3.62	2.871	-1.261	0.212	-.201	2.916	0.229	-9.355	1.962
	Inclusive-Support	-2.706	3.779	-.716	0.477	-.048	3.195	0.392	-9.358	3.463
	Exclusive-Support	-4.546	3.905	-1.164	0.249	0.138	3.775	0.238	-11.989	2.938

Table 8.19 Psychometric / Biographical Multiple Regression Coefficient Statistics

	TA Support	-7.032	4.075	-1.726	0.089	0.047	3.847	0.058	-13.628	1.014
	SEN-Intervention	3.819	5.546	0.689	0.494	0.249	6.348	0.551	-8.166	16.581
	English-Support	-1.623	3.104	-.523	0.603	0.265	3.669	0.667	-8.415	6.156
	Behaviour-Intervention	-10.486	4.886	-2.146	0.036	-.622	7.13	0.11	-23.523	5.365
Verbal Ability	(Constant)	54.781	3.373	16.239	0	-.081	3.196	0.001	48.478	61.185
	Dyspraxia	-10.792	4.698	2.297	0.025	0.081	3.927	0.008	2.576	18.36
	Dyscalculia	-8.372	3.484	-2.403	0.019	-.248	3.775	0.026	-16.096	-1.356
	Behaviour-Difficulties	-4.3	2.917	-1.474	0.146	-.22	3.013	0.159	-10.648	1.331
	Literacy-Difficulties	-.398	2.85	-.14	0.889	-.245	2.755	0.879	-6.113	4.496
	Inclusive-Support	-2.971	3.751	-.792	0.431	0.28	3.804	0.43	-9.684	4.982
	Exclusive-Support	-.169	3.876	-.044	0.965	0.257	3.746	0.968	-7.273	7.898
	TA Support	-6.85	4.045	-1.694	0.095	-.057	3.735	0.05	-14.1	1.177
	SEN-Intervention	1.331	5.505	0.242	0.81	-.06	3.42	0.672	-5.801	7.73
	English-Support	-4.539	3.081	-1.473	0.146	-.044	3.179	0.156	-10.895	1.598
	Behaviour-Intervention	-4.509	4.85	-.93	0.356	-.12	4.787	0.323	-15.299	4.257
General School	(Constant)	51.402	3.627	14.172	0	-.128	3.355	0.001	44.416	57.881
	Dyspraxia	-1.335	5.051	-.264	0.792	0.196	7.353	0.869	-14.444	14.122
	Dyscalculia	-2.595	3.746	-.693	0.491	-.262	4.207	0.532	-11.6	4.747
	Behaviour-Difficulties	-2.187	3.136	-.697	0.488	-.145	3.63	0.56	-9.199	4.904
	Literacy-Difficulties	-2.251	3.064	-.735	0.465	-.341	2.553	0.39	-7.657	2.293
	Inclusive-Support	1.221	4.033	0.303	0.763	0.258	3.651	0.744	-5.47	8.901
	Exclusive-Support	-.832	4.168	-.2	0.842	0.448	3.991	0.84	-7.613	7.803
	TA Support	-3.141	4.349	-.722	0.473	0.087	4.173	0.47	-12.052	5.416
	SEN-Intervention	9.141	5.919	1.544	0.128	-.005	5.174	0.061	-1.772	17.935
	English-Support	0.831	3.313	0.251	0.803	-.066	3.137	0.787	-5.368	6.615
	Behaviour-Intervention	-4.556	5.215	-.874	0.386	-.54	8.029	0.558	-20.613	11.087

Table 8.19 Psychometric / Biographical Multiple Regression Coefficient Statistics

General Self	(Constant)	55.319	3.218	17.189	0	-.02	2.756	0.001	49.788	60.878
	Dyspraxia	-10.675	4.482	2.382	0.02	0.172	5.558	0.053	0.998	22.653
	Dyscalculia	-8.362	3.323	-2.516	0.014	0.027	4.561	0.057	-17.952	0.295
	Behaviour-Difficulties	-6.197	2.783	-2.227	0.03	-.111	2.776	0.033	-11.663	-.732
	Literacy-Difficulties	-2.011	2.719	-.74	0.462	-.271	3.004	0.492	-7.85	3.735
	Inclusive-Support	-3.441	3.579	-.962	0.34	-.008	3.137	0.275	-9.863	2.599
	Exclusive-Support	-1.48	3.698	-.4	0.69	0.412	3.487	0.665	-8.162	5.655
	TA Support	-4.726	3.859	-1.225	0.225	0.051	2.9935	0.096	-10.476	1.515
	SEN-Intervention	8.755	5.252	1.667	0.101	-.215	4.102	0.028	-.124	16.276
	English-Support	-3.096	2.939	-1.053	0.296	-.418	3.28	0.359	-9.767	3.206
	Behaviour-Intervention	-3.262	4.627	-.705	0.483	-.05	4.176	0.42	-11.165	5.072
SDQ-II Total	(Constant)	51.601	3.449	14.962	0	-.076	3.207	0.001	45.404	58.156
	Dyspraxia	-9.68	4.803	2.015	0.048	0.163	6.738	0.136	-3.056	23.572
	Dyscalculia	-7.364	3.561	-2.068	0.043	-.169	3.806	0.054	-15.534	-.376
	Behaviour-Difficulties	-3.197	2.982	-1.072	0.288	-.168	3.277	0.315	-9.353	3.55
	Literacy-Difficulties	-2.274	2.913	-.781	0.438	-.305	3.047	0.462	-8.628	3.328
	Inclusive-Support	0.904	3.835	0.236	0.814	0.142	3.295	0.8	-5.419	7.405
	Exclusive-Support	1.258	3.963	0.317	0.752	0.52	4.37	0.786	-6.91	10.134
	TA Support	-2.341	4.135	-.566	0.573	0.046	3.55	0.468	-8.957	5.199
	SEN-Intervention	7.051	5.628	1.253	0.215	-.315	3.756	0.068	-.566	13.896
	English-Support	-3.676	3.15	-1.167	0.248	-.269	3.403	0.296	-10.507	2.617
	Behaviour-Intervention	-1.535	4.959	-.31	0.758	-.317	4.533	0.734	-10.441	7.167
BMSLSS Score	(Constant)	29.426	2.761	10.657	0	-.132	3.609	0.001	22.315	36.503
	Dyspraxia	1.401	3.845	0.364	0.717	0.141	3.058	0.637	-4.302	7.783
	Dyscalculia	1.363	2.851	0.478	0.634	-.068	2.514	0.595	-3.459	6.353
	Behaviour-Difficulties	-2.796	2.388	-1.171	0.246	-.257	2.561	0.289	-8.019	2.015
	Literacy-Difficulties	-.03	2.333	-.013	0.99	-.16	2.292	0.993	-4.683	4.396
	Inclusive-Support	2.807	3.07	0.914	0.364	0.139	3.545	0.452	-4.125	9.966
	Exclusive-Support	0.95	3.173	0.3	0.766	0.473	4.294	0.841	-7.148	10.063

Table 8.19 Psychometric / Biographical Multiple Regression Coefficient Statistics

TA Support	1.337	3.311	0.404	0.688	0.01	4.429	0.766	-7.293	10.056
SEN-Intervention	3.541	4.506	0.786	0.435	-.339	3.933	0.365	-5.037	10.269
English-Support	-2.023	2.522	-.802	0.425	0.013	2.759	0.465	-7.787	3.176
Behaviour-Intervention	3.316	3.97	0.835	0.407	-.302	3.842	0.371	-4.263	10.665

Table 8.19 Psychometric / Biographical Multiple Regression Coefficient Statistics

8.5.11.4 Multiple Regression ANOVA Statistics

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Physical Ability	Regression	1475.148	10	147.515	1.605	.126
	Residual	5699.482	62	91.927		
	Total	7174.63	72			
Physical Appearance	Regression	1696.609	10	169.661	1.956	.054
	Residual	5377.418	62	86.733		
	Total	7074.027	72			
Opposite Sex Relations	Regression	803.98	10	80.398	0.791	.637
	Residual	6302.54	62	101.654		
	Total	7106.521	72			
Same Sex Relations	Regression	1503.495	10	150.349	1.613	.124
	Residual	5779.491	62	93.218		
	Total	7282.986	72			
Parental Relations	Regression	871.225	10	87.122	0.889	.548
	Residual	6074.83	62	97.981		
	Total	6946.055	72			
Honesty/Trustworthiness	Regression	1439.658	10	143.966	1.594	.13
	Residual	5600.836	62	90.336		
	Total	7040.493	72			
Emotional Stability	Regression	935.341	10	93.534	0.919	.522
	Residual	6310.44	62	101.781		
	Total	7245.781	72			
Mathematic Ability	Regression	1456.994	10	145.699	1.556	.142
	Residual	5806.897	62	93.66		
	Total	7263.89	72			
Verbal Ability	Regression	1579.127	10	157.913	1.711	.098
	Residual	5722.379	62	92.296		
	Total	7301.507	72			
General School	Regression	635.665	10	63.567	0.596	.811
	Residual	6615.212	62	106.697		
	Total	7250.877	72			
General Self	Regression	1841.865	10	184.186	2.193	.03
	Residual	5207.916	62	83.999		
	Total	7049.781	72			
SDQ-II Total	Regression	1291.502	10	129.15	1.339	.23
	Residual	5980.827	62	96.465		
	Total	7272.329	72			
BMSLSS Score	Regression	438.896	10	43.89	0.71	.712
	Residual	3833.543	62	61.831		
	Total	4272.438	72			

Table 8.20 Multiple Regression ANOVA Statistics

8.5.12 Model Summary

Model	R	R2	Adjusted R2	Bootstrap Bias	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval Lower	Higher
Physical Ability	.453	.206	.077	-.419	.224	.924	1.788
Physical Appearance	.490	.240	.117	-.487	.228	.938	1.806
Opposite Sex Relations	.336	.113	-.030	-.258	.218	.837	1.687
Same Sex Relations	.454	.206	.078	-.440	.221	1.008	1.865
Parental Relations	.354	.125	-.016	-.615	.235	.837	1.795
Honesty/Trustworthiness	.452	.204	.076	-.421	.226	.808	1.679
Emotional Stability	.359	.129	-.011	-.368	.197	.698	1.485
Mathematic Ability	.448	.201	.072	-.435	.224	.872	1.758
Verbal Ability	.465	.216	.090	-.499	.228	.912	1.807
General School	.296	.088	-.059	-.579	.245	.902	1.863
General Self	.511	.261	.142	-.244	.196	.593	1.373
SDQ-II Total	.421	.178	.045	-.073	.187	.464	1.200
BMSLSS Score	.321	.103	-.042	-.251	.194	.704	1.470

Table 8.21 Model Summary

8.5.13 Classroom Observation Schedule Criteria Frequencies / Count

		Schools			
		1	2	3	4
Range of formats	Only one available task	4	6	4	14
	At least one alternative format for a given task Project work	7	2	1	1
	More than two alternative formats for a task OR Open interpretation option for the task offered (providing there is appropriate support)	1	0	1	1
Quality of inclusive options	Only written tasks; No consideration of accessibility	0	3	2	2
	Alternative task or materials offer a learning route that is not writing	7	5	4	5
	Identified choice that is specific to two or more learning styles AND Inclusive options are equally challenging OR Tasks throughout the lesson offer a rich varied mix of multimodal content that is not reliant on any one learning style	5	0	0	9
Promotion of alternative options	Alternatives only offered to a few specific students OR No alternatives	2	5	4	10
	Alternatives available for all, but treated as a lesser alternative	0	2	2	5
	Alternatives introduced equally by teacher OR Group work promotes and celebrates difference	10	1	0	1
Base material inclusivity	No consideration of accessibility	2	1	4	2
	Base material in dyslexia friendly formatting	6	5	1	6
	No base material	4	2	1	8
Work structure	Mostly written work / Predominant use of text books	0	3	3	1
	Variety of teaching methods used / Student interaction tasks	11	5	3	12
	Project based learning; Pupil input and experience included Multimodal tasks	1	0	0	3
Sequencing	Pacing for slower students not considered; No observable progression, or no recap on previous class	1	3	2	2
	Reflection time between tasks; Some evidence of progressive skill building	8	3	3	6
	Clear development of tasks; Flexible or extra tasks to accommodate fast learners	3	2	1	8
Scaffolding availability	No scaffolding tools available; No evidence of sequencing	3	4	3	8
	Scaffold tools for writing offered to specific students OR Support staff work with specific students	8	4	2	7
	Appropriate use of ICT in the classroom available for all students to support and scaffold work; Teachers supporting all students	1	0	1	1

Illustration 8.4 Observation Schedule Criteria Frequencies

8.5.13 *(… continued)* Classroom Observation Schedule Criteria Frequencies / Count

Social / intellectual climate	Culture of individual attainment evident	2	4	3	5
	Teacher promotes value of varied input	6	3	2	5
	Students given time and opportunity to help one another	4	1	1	6
Co-teaching focus	Teaching assistants only with some of the specific children	2	6	6	4
	Teaching assistant works to solve problems in the class	5	2	0	6
	Teaching assistant supports all learners, as does teacher	5	0	0	6
Modes of instruction / pacing	Lecturing / transmissive approach predominant	2	1	3	1
	Varied approaches including group work	5	7	3	12
	Group work / individual work clearly divided and accessible to all	5	0	0	3
Monitoring engagement	Student engagement largely unmonitored	0	2	3	0
	Ask questions to check engagement, including all students	8	5	3	9
	Ask questions presented in a culture that supports learning by mistakes – valuing all contributions	4	1	0	7
Group work strategies	Students choose their own groups	2	6	5	5
	Strategically mixed skill groups	7	1	0	4
	Groups encouraged to use dynamic and creative skills of the whole group	3	1	1	7
Hand outs	Mixed or non-dys friendly formatting OR Hand-outs only given to marginalised learners or Hand-outs not tagged	0	0	1	0
	Appropriate instructions given; Hand-outs are accessibly formatted; Hand-outs are provided for all; Hand-outs are clearly titled, etc.	6	2	2	2
	N/A	6	6	3	14
Use of whiteboard	Student's learning reliant on accurate copying from the whiteboard at any point	0	0	1	0
	Reading from the whiteboard used to put up information for longer periods in between other modes of following the lesson	7	1	2	6
	Whiteboard seldom used; Instructions on paper for individual pacing	5	7	3	10
Accessible Text	Text presentation does not comply with dyslexia style guide	2	2	2	2
	Some text presentation is compliant OR Text presentation is consistent, but only compliant in some ways	8	4	3	8
	All text presentation is accessible	2	2	1	6

Illustration 8.4 Observation Schedule Criteria Frequencies

8.5.13 *(… continued)* Classroom Observation Schedule Criteria Frequencies / Count

Accessible IT	ICT not visible in the classroom	7	8	4	3	
	ICT used to help some students access content	5	0	1	10	
	ICT solutions available to all students as a task route	0	0	1	3	
Time egality	Teacher uses teaching assistant to support marginalised learners exclusively	1	5	5	3	
	Teacher spends some time with marginalised learners	4	3	0	4	
	Teacher time is divided equally between all learners of different skill	7	0	1	9	
Evidence of student knowledge	Student's personal input not included	1	2	2	0	
	Student personal experience integrated into teaching content	10	4	3	11	
	Some student learning is independently directed	1	2	1	5	
Explicit inclusive values taught	No diverse or inclusive literature or discussion takes place (during this lesson)	4	5	5	10	
	Evidence of diverse or inclusive literature or discussion	8	3	1	4	
	Explicit values of inclusivity / Equality and diversity, discussed during the lesson	0	0	0	2	
Celebrate creativity	Creative approaches not included	7	5	4	3	
	Creative contributions discussed and praised	2	2	2	9	
	Creativity given equal value to traditional learning	3	1	0	4	
Pressure and questions	Children made to answer questions in front of whole class	2	4	1	6	
	Strategies to support and encourage individual participation (all input is good input)	10	4	3	6	
	Teachers check learning individually or formatively in tutorial sessions	0	0	2	4	
Praise / reinforcement	Negative reinforcement or no appraisals given to marginalised learners in class	1	2	1	0	
	Student receive formative feedback on their work during the lesson	7	4	5	10	
	All contributions are positively reinforced	4	2	0	6	

Illustration 8.4 Observation Schedule Criteria Frequencies

8.5.14 Example Selection of Student Participant Photographs

Illustration 8.5 Assorted Student Photography

8.5.14 (*…continued*) Example Selection of Student Participant Photographs

Illustration 8.5 Assorted Student Photography

8.5.14 (*…continued*) Example Selection of Student Participant Photographs

Illustration 8.5 Assorted Student Photography

8.5.14 (*…continued*) Example Selection of Student Participant Photographs

Illustration 8.5 Assorted Student Photography

8.5.14 (*…continued*) Example Selection of Student Participant Photographs

Illustration 8.5 Assorted Student Photography

8.5.14 (*…continued*) Example Selection of Student Participant Photographs

Illustration 8.5 Assorted Student Photography

8.5.14 (…continued) Example Selection of Student Participant Photographs

Illustration 8.5 Assorted Student Photography

8.5.14 (*…continued*) Example Selection of Student Participant Photographs

Illustration 8.5 Assorted Student Photography

8.5.14 (*…continued*) Example Selection of Student Participant Photographs

Illustration 8.5 Assorted Student Photography

8.5.14 (*…continued*) Example Selection of Student Participant Photographs

Illustration 8.5 Assorted Student Photography

8.5.14 (*…continued*) Example Selection of Student Participant Photographs

Illustration 8.5 Assorted Student Photography

8.5.15 Student IPA Process in Detail

8.5.15.1 First Hermeneutic Cycle

The first HC began by reading through each transcript and reviewing the attached pictures, in order to familiarise the researcher with the context of the specific interview (as suggested by Smith and Osborn (2003)). The process was followed for each participant, however differences were considerable in the ease of performing hermeneutic analysis between some transcripts. The researcher was aware of achieving varying degrees of fluency between different transcripts. Student interview transcripts sometimes appeared, even at the first HC, to lack detail or explanation in some areas.

The pictures were an asset because some children had gestured or focussed on particular content in pictures, even though the semi-structured interview asked them to comment on *why* they had taken the pictures, and what they meant. In the left hermeneutic analysis details of photographs could be summarised and linked with particular text. Discerning from participants' engagement with their photos it was also possible in some cases to relate photographs with a more general sense of mood, or other concept.

Participants had several ways of using photography to represent content brought to interview. As well as division in the activity between positive feeling and negative feeling, participants used photos to introduce places, activities, people, or to express a particular emotion or concept. It was therefore necessary to carefully reason what verbal and gestural responses to photos actually meant. This was a challenge both

during the interviews, and during the analysis, and the researcher noted several instances where upon having the opportunity to replay or re-read responses, that follow up questions were not as directive as could maybe have been achieved.

Interpreting language and tone, student participants were often very expressive, and used very telling language. It was common for students to ascribe strong emotions to situations, as well as to strongly *not* care about some things (at least at the time of interview). Participants often specifically appeared to reference a child-oriented world view. For example responses were more likely to reference casual interpersonal relationship boundaries and leisure activities, rather than formal structures or lessons. Achieving a level of summary and connection therefore involved developing the left hermeneutic in a staggered manner for some interviews, with a constant re-searching the transcript for answers to questions, and reviewing the meaning of particular sections in context (Smith & Osborn, 2003). In order to avoid accidentally discarding information by not coding it, the first HC became overwhelmed with codes.

Where questions could not feasibly be answered by the response given, a number of considerations were taken. Firstly the concepts and specific context of the question were noted, but also the demeanour of the participant at the time, and discernible emotional state. Clues to motivation were gathered, including disinclination, lack of understanding, negative feeling, or distraction. Some participants also appeared to lack confidence in discussing certain subjects. Whilst some participants expressed their concern vocally (such as fear of getting in trouble), it was necessary to gauge the meaning behind stutters, pauses, and change in tone or pace.

In the first HC the right hermeneutic analysis was pursued unconstrained by the left hermeneutic. Although the goal is to achieve concise phrases, abstract concepts were

often suited across larger portions of text than with the left hermeneutic (as suggested by Smith and Osborn (2003)). The researcher did also match left and right hermeneutics together for some sections. With multiple re-reads of the transcript more concise phrases and theoretical orientations could be applied to more distinct selections. Naming characterised behaviours was a useful approach with student participants, because their language often described actions in order to infer feelings or outcomes. Similarly attributions of responsibility (such as blaming a teacher) were often made clear verbally and therefore concisely contributed to the right hermeneutic.

It was challenging for the researcher in the first HC to avoid theoretical interpretation that related to information about the individual participants' school or other support. Although transcripts were anonymised so that names were removed, differences between the teaching style and resources were evident when reading the transcripts, and photographs of the schools often depicted distinct architectural features. In order to retain a grounded focus on the participant perspective, theoretical suppositions were confirmed by looking for key words that inferred relationships or awareness, or non-verbal cues that in conjunction suggested a tenable premise. In the first HC the researcher chose to ignore theoretical connections based on grander readings of the transcript.

Due to the large number of student interviews (74), over familiarity with emerging concepts and theories became a considerable issue. Although due time and care was taken with all interviews, due to the relatively short nature of each interview transcript, one's mind none-the-less tangles information and ideas recollected from such an abundance of similar transcripts. Working through the left and right hermeneutics cannot be distilled into a set piece instruction, and therefore the only approaches

remaining to counter the issue were to rigorously re-read the first HC for each transcript, sometimes more than once, and to randomise the order that the transcripts were read in so that within any given sitting, a variety of schools, genders, and SpLD diagnosis labelled participants were read. A sample page of an example transcript at this stage is in Appendix 8.5.17.

8.5.15.2 Second Hermeneutic Cycle

The second HC involved reviewing the first HC, and applying the principles of left and right hermeneutic analysis to the transcript, and the first cycle hermeneutics. This additional level of intensity was managed using a recursive and repetitive approach, in which left hermeneutics are commented in terms of specific, and more widely applicable (within the case) ideas. With each review the more widely applicable ideas are then reviewed to incorporate additional levels of specific analyses. Colour coding codes was used in NVivo 10 to make the distinction, however codes were not stratified at this point.

For many of the student interview transcripts the second HC involved a careful scrutiny of the integrity of perceived ideas or emerging views. This was because a considerable amount of hermeneutic commentary had referred to unspoken or inferred meaning. As a result, non-verbal coding and comments were colour coded separately from verbal codes and comments. An additional layer of inter-actionary hermeneutic coding and commenting then described different types of unspoken or inferred meaning.

The right hermeneutic was reviewed from the first HC, and updated in reference to the left hermeneutic in the second HC. In most cases this resulted in fewer concepts or proto-themes, which in many cases drew together multiple left-hermeneutics as a more concise evaluative perspective emerged of each case. Theoretical concepts were also attached to clusters or patterns of language, once the left hermeneutic had been scrutinised.

During both the left and right hermeneutic analyses in the second HC, particular key quotes or words which had pivotal or referential significance were additionally highlighted. This was done because some of the simpler cases were reaching limits of

hermeneutic analysis by the end of the second HC. At the end of the second HC, meta-themes had emerged with usefulness across the majority of the cases. ‘Structural Relationships’ and ‘Value in Learning Styles’ were two of the meta-themes which each had several proto-themes relating to them. There were also outlying proto-themes specific to individual or a small collection of cases. Individual cases now had proto-themes, and some relationships to other cases. A sample page of an example transcript at this stage is in Appendix 8.5.18.

8.5.15.3 Third Hermeneutic Cycle

The third HC follows the direction reached at the end of the second HC, where relationships were becoming visible between cases. Developments were therefore progressively more notable on transcripts where more universal proto-themes had emerged in the second HC. For these individual cases the left hermeneutic was typically developing into organisational meta-narratives. These could be classified generally speaking as either personal or shared. Both styles of narrative had distilled experience and provided a concise number of superordinate hermeneutics.

In order to merge and collate superordinates in the left hermeneutic, narratives that depicted connections or explanations were formed[9]. Although these were not the only type of superordinate hermeneutic, they were replete, especially where the proto-themes in the right hermeneutic had been more universal. This was because common experiences naturally emerged, which was anticipated because the nature of the photographic activity (time limited, constrained by school premises, etc.) had given many similar inspirations.

Common language, attitudes to situations, and repeatable and identifiable (in terms of the school) experiences were common, and strongly informed the right hermeneutic, in which theoretical points were now addressing structural information as part of proto-themes. One key example that arose was 'Feeling Part of a Community'. Many students from one particular school had explored this through photographs and specific use of language. From a different school, many students had particularly positive experiences of relationships with teachers who understood their learning support needs (termed 'Teacher Understanding of SpLD'). These and other proto-

[9] As recommended by Callary, Rathwell, and Young (2015)

themes strongly associated in difference between schools led to the creation of superordinate classification of school as a theme. In NVivo this was achieved by removing the previous attempt to disguise schools, and by adding coding for each individual school.

Distilling the right hermeneutic in the third HC involved further reference to phenomena that occurred within the left hermeneutic, with careful consideration to consistency or frequency of different assumptions or narratives. Theories both pluralised and reduced successively as iterative changes prompted reconsideration or the inclusion, or the scope of assumptions. It was challenging for the researcher to avoid bias when reviewing theoretical tangents, because the further the third HC connected individuals to schools, the more superordinate themes reflected collective or structural explanations, including those which justified undertaking this research. As in the second HC, a meticulous process of re-reading and review was necessary. Using NVivo queries, it was possible to quickly review content altogether from across the sample, that was contributing to a particular coding, proto-theme, or superordinate, and go back through the transcripts in detail.

At the end of the third hermeneutic cycle, proto themes now structured the analysis, with the left hermeneutic providing detailed analysed examples. Superordinate themes had emerged, where multiple proto-themes were subordinate directions, outcomes, or theories. Some of the proto-themes in superordinate themes described specific schools. ‘Bully Target’ and ‘Feeling Part of a Community’ are examples of socially oriented themes that were specific to some schools. Other superordinates were either general experiences which did not have a common narrative within each school, or they represented content that was less common or universal, such as

‘Confidence Through Being Active’. A sample page of an example transcript at this stage is in Appendix 8.5.19.

8.5.15.4 Fourth Hermeneutic Cycle

For student transcripts the fourth HC began with exploring the validity of using schools as cases, rather than students. Due to the size of the student sample, there was not a clearly preferable approach in the literature for resolving incongruities. Smith and Osborn (2003) discuss how cases can be representative of different types of data and sources. In continuing to follow their approach to IPA, resolution of this decision had to be reached through hermeneutic cycles. NVivo 10 queries were extremely useful in dynamically bringing together content for review, and experimenting with proto-themes using schools and individuals as cases.

Brocki and Wearden (2006) suggest that in IPA support for themes must include consideration of the supportability of the content in contributing to that theme. Factors that can be used to analyse the supportability include prominence, such as the emphasis in the transcript, the frequency of mention in the transcript, or the consistency of the implication of the transcript. Reviewing the combination transcripts using schools as cases, there is therefore justification and approach to develop collective cases by identifying incongruities in trends in collective hermeneutics, providing that the developed themes are still accurate reflections of the meaning behind the original transcripts (Smith, 2003).

This was achieved by identifying emerging themes for which incongruities in individual transcripts did not fit with collective themes. The fourth hermeneutic cycle contained numerous cycles at small, grand, and intermediary levels towards collective themes, each testing whether moving incongruous content into proto-themes not associated with the congruous content changes

a) The congruous hermeneutic

b) The theme of the incongruous portion

c) Other hermeneutics

d) The meaning of the original transcript

This was a lengthy and complex recursive approach, and became difficult to manage even with NVivo software. 'Generations' of changes were reflected in the construction of multiple versions of the numerous queries required to explore this. Although this facilitated keeping track of the changes, there ultimately became too many incongruities in the hermeneutics (not the transcript) when analysing the construction of proto-themes that had persisted from the second HC as now subordinate to themes. As a result, of this it was necessary to review incongruities in collective themes as incompatible.

This process did however yield benefits in streamlining certain proto-themes. It was particularly effective where throughout the HCs certain incongruities had been both clearly relevant to strongly supported emerging themes and did not justify themes by themselves, but however presented incongruities with the direction or nature of any collective emerging themes (not schools as cases). An example of this was where a male student held seemingly incompatible views about relationship dynamics with teachers. The qualities of the relationship and the structure were seemingly positive, and the collective proto-themes that described these qualities in these aspects represented positive appraisals; however in the case of this participant, the relationships were described very negatively. The lack of evidence to justify this phenomenon in either direction, led to it being removed. Similarly another student expressed contradictory views, which when evaluated collectively suggested different periods of time, although there was insufficient evidence in the individual transcript to

attach this to the transformative/improvement narrative. This approach to ensuring evidentiary support is supported by Callary, Rathwell and Young (2015).

For the fourth HC, left and right hermeneutics were 'cross-referenced', more than used to develop one another as in previous HCs. This was appropriate because most of the direct interpretation of the transcript was previously completed, and therefore the two hermeneutics were largely concordant (Smith & Osborn, 2003). At the end of the fourth HC, emerged themes existed under umbrellas of school specific, and general, but incongruities had now been placed within coherent themes, which had been thoroughly scrutinised. A sample page of an example transcript at this stage is in Appendix 8.5.20.

8.5.15.5 Fifth Hermeneutic Cycle

The fifth HC was a shorter process than others. Only part of the structure of collective cases and superordinate themes was amended. This was done to support an additional theoretical theme, encompassing other areas, and to resolve incomplete refinement of theme meanings and names, to support a more uniform approach. Additionally some proto-themes were merged in order to exemplify opposing views. This was not artificial because several proto-themes had already emerged as polarised – which may be explained by the photographic activity influence on the structure of the interviews, calling for positive and negative images.

Although the fourth HC had not found justification for schools as cases for final theme organisation, themes at the end of the fifth HC now incorporated common theme polarities for several of the themes, which represented two pairs of schools (as opposed to four separate schools).

8.5.16 Student IPA Sample Page Preliminary Transcript Preparation

P	1	Hmm [HES] well I do like Maths as a subject [PS] but on my table people are always
	2	arguing over stuff [,] and it gets a bit distracting sometimes and **ANNOYING** [AC] [HES]
	3	but I do like Maths as a subject [BA] but it just gets a bit awkward on our table cos
	4	everyone falls out and stuff
R	5	Ok, is Maths something you think you're quite good at or something you find [...]
P	6	[AC] hmm I always said maybe I was average, I'm in middle set so [...] [SA]
R	7	hmm Ok and do you feel that you get enough support with your Maths?
P	8	yeah [,] I do, apart from when [AC] [PS] I don't know how to put this into words [HES]
	9	when you ask a teacher for help [,] if you don't get something [HES] I think it would be
	10	better if they explained it in a different way [,] [BA] because usually teachers explain the
	11	same thing [INA] only with you but then it still [SA] sometimes makes no sense
R	12	Could you give an example of a way that you would think would be better for you? a
	13	better way for them to explain it to you?
P	14	[HA] to actually **WRITE IT DOWN** more [HES] instead of explaining [...]
R	15	Do you find that you actually forget their explanations once they've said it?
P	16	Hmm not really [HES] sometimes I don't get it first and then I find out half way through
	17	a lesson [PS] [AC] I like things to be actually written down so you can see it [,] not just
	18	explained [,] and mainly like [HA] people explain what they've done to show what they
	19	mean
R	20	OK then what about this one?
P	21	This is Science, hmm Science [STOP] I'm just not interested at all really [HES] because
	22	everyone that I [INA] likes Science and like [PS] [...] Ah [PS] you can do cool experiments
	23	[,] and I'm just **NOT** interested in doing experiments at all
R	24	Ok do you generally find that you're able to do most of the work OK?
P	25	Yeah I can do it [HES] [HA] **I'M JUST NOT INTERESTED**
R	26	OK no problem, and that one?
P	27	Hmm [HES] this language block [,] and I do Spanish [PS] and I just **DON'T LIKE SPANISH**
	28	[STOP] [...] [SA] it's one of the subjects I dislike
R	29	Why do you think you dislike it?
P	30	because all the other languages [PS] [AC] they've been quite easy [HES] [SA] but Spanish
	31	seems a bit harder [,] and harder to learn [,] [SA] and you have to learn quite a lot more
	32	[...] for homework and stuff

Notation:

[PS] : pause
[HES] : hesitation
[INA] : inaudible speech
[...] : implied continuation
[STOP] : full stop / sentence end
[,] : natural pause / comma
[CO] : Confident

[BA] : bitter or angry tone
[SA] : sad or regretful tone
[HA] : happy or enthusiastic tone
[AC] : actively contemplative, in thought
[IN] : Indignant
TEXT: strong or forceful tone
[redacted] : Redaction

Illustration 8.6 Student Preliminary Transcript Preparation

8.5.17 Student IPA Sample Page First HC Transcript Commentary

Notation:

[example] **1 (15) - 3 (7)** : line 1, word 15, to line 3, word 7

WTS : wider text segment. Refers to a text reference point, not in the example extract. Numbers not cited because line numbers are different due to different formatting for example extract presentation
OTS : Other transcript segment. Refers to a text reference point in another transcript.

Text Range	Left Hermeneutic	Right Hermeneutic
1(10) – 2(3)	does not see self as part of the social group of the table	
2(4) – 4(5)	desire to focus on work, that differs from local peers	
6(1–8)	begins to acceptingly appraise oneself; internal reference to some construct / measure	
6(9–13)	Embaressed, struggle with acknowledging?	
8(1–15)	Uneasy or unsure about describing phenomena to researcher	
9(8–12)	Describing unfulfilled need	
9(13) – 10(9)	student understands their own learning needs, and conceives better approach	
10(10) – 11(13)	has experienced perceived inadequate support, when specific support was requested	
14(1) – 14(9)	has experienced perceived inadequate support, knowing better was possible	
16(1) – 17(2)	don't feel included in the flow of the lesson; owness placed on personal inadequacy / difference	

Illustration 8.7 Student First Hermeneutic Cycle

7.4.17 *(… continued)* Student IPA Sample Page First HC Transcript Commentary

17(3–15)	Describes own need. Need is for written material, so can refer / work at own pace / compensate?
21(1–3)	Photograph presented. Skeleton model in science lab – humorous composition
21(6–12)	Acerbic tone indicating falsely dismissive attitude
22(1–13)	Identifies as disconnected from perceived common experience of this type of learning.
25(1–9)	Specific and intense frustration
27(1–4)	Photograph presented. Exterior building view with sign outside, and European flags visible
27(1) – 28(7)	Strong dislike of Spanish classes
27(1–8)	Cautious about explaining dislike for class; use of language carefully chosen
28(1–7)	Implies dislike for several subjects, and that they have a common thread/connection between them
30(1) – 31(8)	Sounds embarrassed/upset by own unfulfilled expectations about Spanish classes
30(6–9)	hesitant positivity at past performance
31(9–17)	suggested identification with personal learning capacity issue

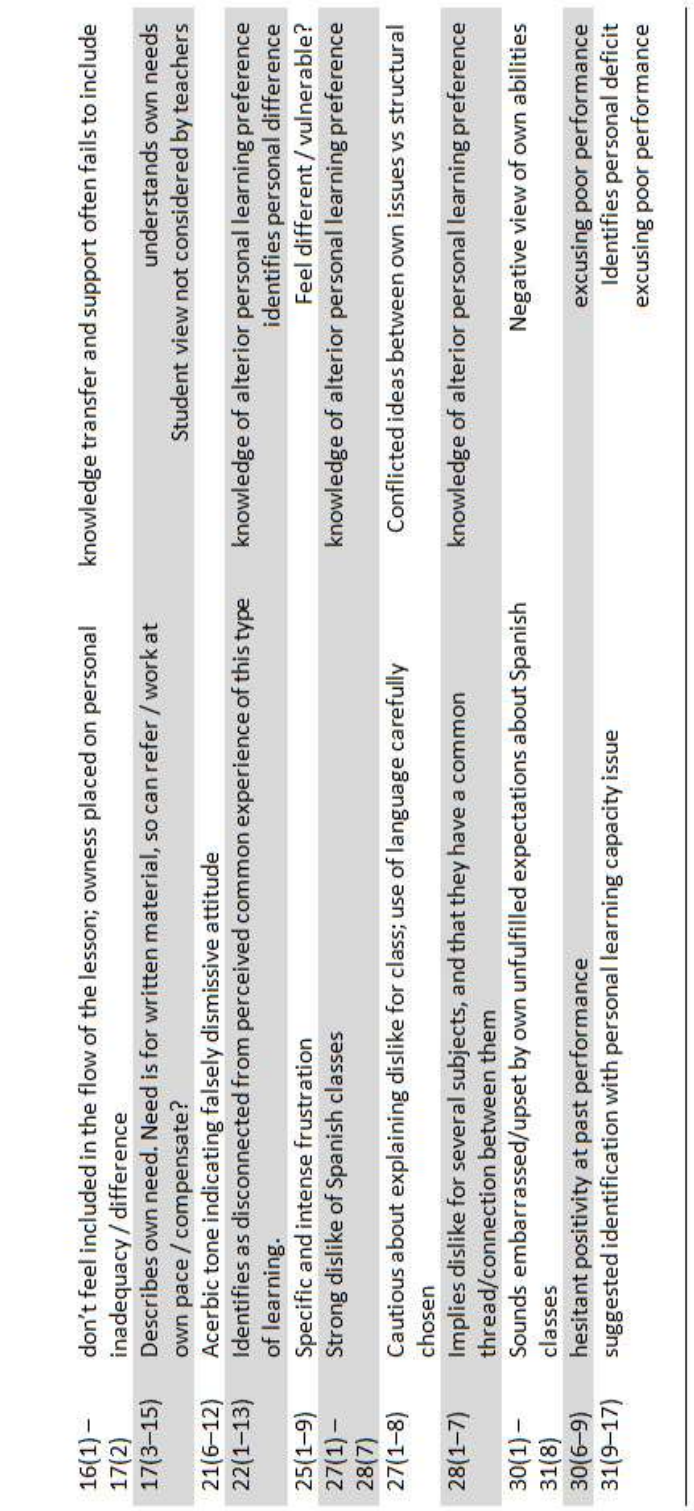
Illustration 8.7 Student First Hermeneutic Cycle

8.5.18 Student IPA Sample Page Second HC Transcript Commentary - Start

Text Range	Left Hermeneutic	Right Hermeneutic
1(10) – 2(3)	does not see self as part of the social group of the table	people = othering
2(4) – 4(5)	desire to focus on work, that differs from local peers	outward blame / distress caused by others Lack of control over own goals towards learning feels unable to manage own peer social scenario to suit comfort and work efficiently
6(1–8)	begins to acceptingly appraise oneself; internal reference to some construct / measure	
6(9–13)	Embaressed, struggle with acknowledging?	Conflicting identity issues? ambition not fulfilled by performance
8(1–15)	Uneasy or unsure about describing phenomena to researcher	
9(8–12)	Describing unfulfillled need	history / experience of teachers ignoring them
9(13) – 10(9)	student understands their own learning needs, and conceives better approach	Student view not considered by teachers
10(10) – 11(13)	has experienced perceived inadequate support, when specific support was requested	history / experience of teachers ignoring them
14(1) – 14(9)	has experienced perceived inadequate support, knowing better was possible	history / experience of teachers ignoring them Student view not considered by teachers

Illustration 8.8 Student Second Hermeneutic Cycle

7.4.18 *(… continued)* Student IPA Sample Page Second HC Transcript Commentary - Start



16(1) – 17(2)	don't feel included in the flow of the lesson; owness placed on personal inadequacy / difference	knowledge transfer and support often fails to include
17(3–15)	Describes own need. Need is for written material, so can refer / work at own pace / compensate?	understands own needs Student view not considered by teachers
21(6–12)	Acerbic tone indicating falsely dismissive attitude	
22(1–13)	Identifies as disconnected from perceived common experience of this type of learning.	knowledge of alterior personal learning preference identifies personal difference
25(1–9)	Specific and intense frustration	Feel different / vulnerable?
27(1) – 28(7)	Strong dislike of Spanish classes	knowledge of alterior personal learning preference
27(1–8)	Cautious about explaining dislike for class; use of language carefully chosen	Conflicted ideas between own issues vs structural
28(1–7)	Implies dislike for several subjects, and that they have a common thread/connection between them	knowledge of alterior personal learning preference
30(1) – 31(8)	Sounds embarrassed/upset by own unfulfilled expectations about Spanish classes	Negative view of own abilities
30(6–9)	hesitant positivity at past performance	excusing poor performance
31(9–17)	suggested identification with personal learning capacity issue	Identifies personal deficit excusing poor performance

Illustration 8.8 Student Second Hermeneutic Cycle

7.4.18 (*…continued*) [2] Student IPA Sample Page Second HC Transcript - End

Text Range	Left Hermeneutic	Right Hermeneutic
1(10) – 4(5)	Different focus from peers, when in the classroom Struggles with work because of peers Distraction is frustrating, which impacts overall appraisal	**Lack of control**; feeling powerless - associating with difference; Blames others, but **internalises difference**; **Less ability to compensate** than peers?
6(1–13)	Evaluating self based on grades Embaressed, reluctant to reveal conflicting truth	**Conflicting identities** – imposed values; ambition not fulfilled by performance
8(1) – 14(9)	Describing unfulfilled need; conflicted over blame Overcomes blame conflict. Identifies inadequate support, justifies own actions; Suggests a solution / required support style	history / experience of teachers ignoring them Student view not considered by teachers **Student understands own needs better** **Sees unfairness**
16(1) – 17(15)	don't feel included in the flow of the lesson; owness placed on personal inadequacy / difference; Need to refer / work at own pace	pacing and delivery style **not inclusive** **internalises difference** **Student understands own needs better**
21(1) – 25(9)	Identifies as disconnected from perceived common experience of this type of learning; describing atypicality with other dyslexics? Frustration at own experience	**Student understands own needs better** **internalises difference** NOT practical learner **Sees unfairness**
27(1–8), 30(6) – 31(17)	Hesitant about being critical. Preference or need? Attempt to present dislike, but indicates struggle – aversion to struggle Sounds embarrassed/upset by own unfulfilled expectations hesitant positivity at past performance, excusing poor performance suggested identification with personal learning capacity issue	**Student understands own needs better** Conflicted ideas between own issues vs structural **internalises difference** specific deficit Disengagement due to teaching
28(1–7)	Implies dislike for several subjects, and that they have a common thread/connection between them	alterior personal learning preference **Student understands own needs better**

Illustration 8.8 Student Second Hermeneutic Cycle

8.5.19 Student IPA Sample Page Third HC Transcript Commentary

Text Range	Left Hermeneutic	Right Hermeneutic
1(10) – 4(5), WTS	Peer behaviour in the classroom is distracting for others. Participant is a female dyslexic. Statistically she is a minority. Distracting behaviours from peers stem from Identified inappropriate support provisions. Behavioural management not adequate to support learning environment needs of participant. Blaming others for disruption, but acknowledging own weakness. Participant cannot compensate for the distractions. Participant expects / wishes teacher to intervene. Identifying as different or having different needs or abilities than peers. [WTS] Appropriate support is minimally available, but helpful when it is	Peers not co-operative in learning goals **Lack of control** (no growth, Ryan & Deci) **Feeling different, performing different** **Negative learning experience**
6(1–13), WTS	Evaluating self based on grades Embaressed, reluctant to reveal conflicting truth [WTS] validating own limited abilities – *"everyone knows I cant spell"*	**Identity conflict** over capability definitions Self or peers as standard **Structurally imposed values** **Shame/conflict over performance**
8(1) – 14(9), 28(1–7), WTS	Participant has experienced teachers ignoring them, or not providing attentive support. They suggest specific alternative more engaged approach. Unfulfilled need is 'owned'. Traverses conflict. Student view not considered by teachers, but it should be. Evidences own process to force this to be addressed. Observes inherent unfair treatment. Beyond understanding/perspective, clear outcome relationships are explicated. Despite this, teacher attitudes causes student to question / demean self. 'Common thread' in dislike for some subjects [WTS] support lacking progressive / consistent approach "say it in your head like twenty seven times or write it down"	Student view must be PRIRORITSED **Student understands own needs better** **Injustice/ unfair treatment** Teacher understanding makes it unfair for student Learning preference and need different but important

Illustration 8.9 Student Third Hermeneutic Cycle

7.4.19 *(…continued)* Student IPA Sample Page Third HC Transcript Commentary

16(1) – 17(15), 27(1–8), 30(6) – 31(17), WTS	Participant perceives inclusion as ebb and flow of experience. Environment and teaching style have an impact on this experience. Isolation from the lesson occurs due to lack of accessible/inclusive footholds. This experience is internalised as a 'hazy' difference from peers. To be included and part of the class, needs to the inclusive access to be able to work at own pace, and receive information in own style. Opportunity to be listened to about this is mostly absent. Internalises this lack of support as personal inadequacy. Uncertainty whether should be critical. Confusion / struggle about own how to interpret some aspects of own learning experience. Definite aversion to struggle, but poor confidence in that justification. Embarrassment indicates internalised negative judgement for unfulfilled expectations. Excuses reveal the extent of this internal conflict. Two distinct voices. Common experience vs personal experience, and Learning environment suitability vs difference as acceptable or not [WTS][1] identifies being socially comparatively isolated "made to look silly" [WTS][2] "hopefully {*teachers*} like me"	pacing and delivery style **not inclusive** **internalises difference** **Student understands own needs better** **Blame Conflict: me or teacher?** **Disengaged or abandoned?** **Structural relationships mitigating**
21(1) – 25(9)	Aware of own disconnection from peer group as a learning group, and through the enjoyment or engagement with shared positive social experiences. Does not fit 'typical' SpLD profile for this activity – awareness of individual differences, experienced as isolating Frustration at feeling need to justify/fit in. Indicates minimal comprehension about other's experience. Paramount emotional disengagement. Normal education encroaching upon personal limits.	**Student understands own needs better** Different goals - Hofer (2007) **internalises difference** NOT practical learner **Injustice/ unfair treatment** Individual differences: not just a label

Illustration 8.9 Student Third Hermeneutic Cycle

8.5.20 Student IPA Sample Page Fourth HC Transcript Commentary

Text Range	Left Hermeneutic	Right Hermeneutic
1(10) – 6(13), WTS, OTS	Peer behaviour in the classroom is distracting for others. Participant is a female dyslexic. Statistically she is a minority. Distracting behaviours from peers stem from Identified inappropriate support provisions. Behavioural management not adequate to support learning environment needs of participant. Blaming others for disruption, but acknowledging own weakness. Participant cannot compensate for the distractions. Participant expects / wishes teacher to intervene. Identifying as different or having different needs or abilities than peers. [WTS] Appropriate support is minimally available, but helpful when it is [OTS][1] Powerlessness is injustice for students who understand better alternative approaches [OTS][2] Perceived poor performance is socially evaluated. Peer learning environment is competitive	Peers not co-operative in learning goals **Lack of control** (no growth, Ryan & Deci) **Feeling different, performing different** **Negative learning experience** ***Social comparison Risk***
8(1) – 14(9), 28(1–7), WTS, OTS	Participant has experienced teachers ignoring them, or not providing attentive support. They suggest specific alternative more engaged approach. Unfulfilled need is 'owned'. Traverses conflict. Student view not considered by teachers, but it should be. Evidences own process to force this to be addressed. Observes inherent unfair treatment. Beyond understanding/perspective, clear outcome relationships are explicated. Despite this, teacher attitudes causes student to question / demean self. 'Common thread' in dislike for some subjects [WTS] support lacking progressive / consistent approach "say it in your head like twenty seven times or write it down" [OTS][1] Learning problems encountered by students who feel unfairly treated [OTS][2] Student voice not reflected in teaching style or available support	**Student view must be PRIRORITSED** (Black, 2007) **Just/fair teaching = better learning** Learning preference and need different but important

Illustration 8.10 *Student Fourth Hermeneutic Cycle*

7.4.20 *(… continued)* Student IPA Sample Page Fourth HC Transcript Commentary

16(1) – 17(15), 30(6) – 31(17), WTS, OTS	Isolation from the lesson occurs due to lack of accessible/inclusive footholds. This experience is internalised as a 'hazy' difference from peers. To be included and part of the class, needs to the inclusive access to be able to work at own pace, and receive information in own style. Opportunity to be listened to about this is mostly absent. Internalises this lack of support as personal inadequacy. Uncertainty whether should be critical. Confusion / struggle about own how to interpret some aspects of own learning experience. Definite aversion to struggle, but poor confidence in that justification. Embarrassment indicates internalised negative judgement for unfulfilled expectations. Common experience vs personal experience, and Learning environment suitability vs difference as acceptable or not [WTS] identifies being socially comparatively isolated "made to look silly" [OTS] Some classrooms / teachers promote inclusion of different ideas; leads to more engagement *{better?}*	**not inclusive** **SpLD / deficit difference** **Student understands own needs better** **Culture of classroom not supporting** Right teaching creates an engaging self
21(1) – 25(9), OTS	Aware of own disconnection from peer group as a learning group, and through the enjoyment or engagement with shared positive social experiences. Does not fit 'typical' SpLD profile for this activity – awareness of individual differences, experienced as isolating Injustice due to learning identity conflict [OTS][1] Classroom support for SpLD does not always meet needs [OTS][2] Interest and engagement are facilitated by pace and task, beyond overall topic or content	**Student view must be PRIORITISED** Different goals - Hofer (2007) **internalises difference** Learning style different **Just/fair teaching = better learning**

Illustration 8.10 *Student Fourth Hermeneutic Cycle*

8.5.21 Student IPA Sample Page Fifth HC Transcript Commentary

Text Range	Left Hermeneutic	Right Hermeneutic
1(10) – 6(13), WTS, OTS	Peer behaviour in the classroom is distracting for others. Participant is a female dyslexic. Statistically she is a minority. Distracting behaviours from peers stem from Identified Inappropriate support provisions. Behavioural management not adequate to support learning environment needs of participant. Blaming others for disruption. Participant cannot compensate for the distractions. Participant expects / wishes teacher to intervene. Identifying as different or having different needs or abilities than peers. [OTS][1] Powerlessness is injustice for students who understand better alternative approaches [OTS][2] Perceived poor performance is socially evaluated. Peer learning environment is competitive [OTS][3] Distracting behaviour more likely in larger classrooms	**Lack of control** (no growth, Ryan & Deci) **Feeling different, performing different** **Negative learning experience** ***Social comparison Risk*** ***Poor behaviour***
8(1) – 14(9), 28(1–7), WTS, OTS	Participant has experienced teachers ignoring them, or not providing attentive support. They suggest specific alternative more engaged approach. Student view not considered by teachers, but it should be. Evidences own process to force this to be addressed. Observes inherent unfair treatment. Beyond understanding/perspective, clear outcome relationships are explicated. Teacher attitudes causes student to be self critical 'Common thread' in dislike for some subjects [WTS] support lacking progressive / consistent approach "say it in your head like twenty seven times or write it down" [OTS][1] Learning problems encountered by students who feel unfairly treated [OTS][2] Student voice not reflected in teaching style or available support [OTS][3] Teacher attitudes and disengagement damage confidence in learning	**Student view must be PRIRORITSED** (Black, 2007) **Just/fair teaching = better learning** Feeling isolated and vulnerable

Illustration 8.11 *Student Fifth Hermeneutic Cycle*

7.4.21 *(… continued)* Student IPA Sample Page Fifth HC Transcript Commentary

16(1) – 17(15), 30(6) – 31(17), WTS, OTS	Isolation from the lesson occurs due to lack of accessible/inclusive footholds. This experience is internalised as a 'hazy' difference from peers. To be included and part of the class, needs to the inclusive access to be able to work at own pace, and receive information in own style. Opportunity to be listened to about this is mostly absent. Internalises this lack of support as personal inadequacy. Uncertainty whether should be critical. Confusion / struggle about own how to interpret some aspects of own learning experience. Definite aversion to struggle, but poor confidence in that justification. Common experience vs personal experience, and Learning environment suitability vs difference as acceptable or not [WTS] identifies being socially comparatively isolated "made to look silly" [OTS] Some classrooms / teachers promote inclusion of different ideas; leads to more engagement {*better?*}	**not inclusive SpLD / deficit difference Student understands own needs better Culture of classroom not supporting Right teaching, positive engagement/behaviour**
21(1) – 25(9), OTS	Aware of own disconnection from peer group as a learning group, and through the enjoyment or engagement with shared positive social experiences. Does not fit 'typical' SpLD profile for this activity – awareness of individual differences, experienced as isolating Injustice due to learning identity conflict [OTS][1] Classroom support for SpLD does not always meet needs [OTS][2] Interest and engagement are facilitated by pace and task, beyond overall topic or content	**Student view must be PRIORITISED** (Black, 2007) Different goals - Hofer (2007) **internalises difference SpLD experience makes different Just/fair teaching = better learning**

Illustration 8.11 *Student Fourth Hermeneutic Cycle*

8.5.22 Student IPA Theme Composite Overview

I'm Getting Better, When the Teacher is Fair ↓	Safe in the School Community ↓
Understands needs better than teachers	**Accepted**
Blamer	Feeling part of a community
Can't do attitude	Social capital from students
Lack of control / learnt helplessness	Self Confidence
Negative view of own abilities	Positive classroom : positive social
Teachers don't understand	**Safe**
Ignored / abandoned by teachers	Transitions schools, different experience
Insecure / risk / volatile responses	Praise new structures / support
Disenfranchised	Ongoing issues, but safe due to support
History of failure	Social capital from teachers
Blame other / angry	**Bullied**
Disengaged from fairness	Lonely / no friends / isolation
Acknowledger	No social standing
Personally Developed	Careless state of depression
Teachers understand needs	Enacting bullying on others
Consistent boundaries / safe space	Victim
Understands Inclusion	Bullied because of SpLD
Value in Learning styles	In classroom, expands outside classroom
Awareness of structural awareness	Vulnerable to bullying
Discourse adapted to teacher's	Created in the classroom
Accept responsibility for learning	Social comparison
Goals aligned	
Fairly treated / understands	
Starting to Acknowledge	
Good learning opportunities	
Transitional development experience	
History of unfair treatment	
Awareness of structural injustice	

Illustration 8.12 *Student IPA Theme Composite Overview*

7.4.22 *(… continued)* Student IPA Theme Composite Overview

My SpLD [does/doesn't] make me Different ↓	Right Teaching, Right Behaviour … ↓
Language change between perspectives	Even disruptive students desire orderliness
Does	**Harmonized**
Self-esteem dependant on experience	Able to work / focus
Positive SpLD identity	Self-regulated
Being 'unique', skilled, special	Teacher ability encouraging compliance
Confident	Cool teacher
Good understanding own needs	Amenable environment
Positive experience of support	Accommodating teaching modality
Negative SpLD identity	**Disrupted**
Embarrassed / hides identity	Teacher can't control class
Shame / Anger	Distraction / can't concentrate
Learning 'Difficulties'	Antagonist teaching relationship
Social problems	Larger class sizes / being ignored
Being 'Different'	Lack of SpLD support
Bully Target	Cant compensate for disruption
Doesn't	Behaviour stems from teacher
Minimal emotional connect to SpLD	
Late diagnosis / poor support	
Reject label / avoid 'different'	
Avoided problematic outcomes	

Illustration 8.12 *Student IPA Theme Composite Overview*

8.5.23 Teacher IPA Process in Detail

8.5.23.1 First Hermeneutic Cycle

The first HC began by reading through each transcript at least twice to get an understanding of the overall attitudes and ideas expressed. The researcher began to approach the left hermeneutic as previously described. The bulk of the teacher interviews were considerably easier to approach in the traditional approach suggested by Smith and Osborne (2003) because of the increased articulation, and richness of content and subtext (compared with student interviews). Questions posed were largely answered by the participants, however with an overview of each transcript, it was also possible to note areas of discussion that appeared to be being avoided.

The shared theoretical knowledge of the participants and the researcher (pedagogy, development theories, etc.) was a useful structural beginning for the first HC, where the left hermeneutic could in most cases easily form summaries of referred concepts. There were however in some interviews unfamiliar concepts, particularly emotive issues around 'office politics', which influenced the left hermeneutic grounded in the transcript.

As with the student interviews, in the first HC the right hermeneutic analysis was pursued unconstrained by the left hermeneutic. This facilitated more flexibility, and supported a slow and diligent approach to textual analysis, which was important given the amount of theoretical language being used in the interviews. With multiple re-reads of the transcript more concise phrases and theoretical orientations could be applied to more distinct selections. Participants often referred to particular behaviours

of their students, using contextual language. Assigning colloquial terms ensured that the right hermeneutic of the first HC did not become dictated by the participants' theoretical inclinations at this stage.

With the final section of the interview, the participant commentary upon excerpts from their students' interviews, there was in some cases insufficient material to process. Where there was sufficient material, the quotes from students were imported into the text as referential material. Special coding was applied to highlight the difference. No quotations from this section were taken forward, however in some cases the left hermeneutic explored the perceived reaction or response to the quote, considering sub textual biases and motivations – which were key as they could have been viewed as representative of the school.

8.5.23.2 Second Hermeneutic Cycle

The process for the second HC for teacher interviews followed the same principles and approach as for the student interviews. A key focus of this with teachers involved extracting participants' motivations and underlying feelings, and describing these connective views in terms of right hermeneutic theories, rather than having the right hermeneutic guided by theories offered by participants (Callary, Rathwell & Young, 2015).

8.5.23.3 Third Hermeneutic Cycle

In the third HC superordinate hermeneutics began to emerge and encapsulate other aspects. This often emerged in the form of connective narratives. The teacher interview HCs were completed after the student interview HCs, and therefore the interviewer began to recognise common events, policies, and teaching approaches that had been referred to in teacher interviews. It was challenging for the researcher to maintain review of teacher transcripts without being coloured by reading the experiences of their students. In one school students had spoken very negatively about classroom management and therefore it was hard to endorse teacher views, that presented as genuine, that they had good control in their lessons. In order to stop the right hermeneutic becoming polarised by the revealed outcomes of the student analysis, the third hermeneutic cycle was ordinated much more by revision and review of the left hermeneutic.

It was necessary to rearrange the right hermeneutic after this stage, and this was particularly useful in breaking emerging proto-themes out of the boundaries set by some of the semi-structured questions. This in turn facilitated narratives that were given descriptive names. ‘Everyday I don’t have enough resources’ was a narrative that described the hardship of teachers in wanting to teach inclusively, but feeling there was never the time or resource to ‘fit it in’. The third HC also established other key narratives including ‘Watching them flourish’, which was a transformative proto-theme explored by several teachers who seemed eager to highlight positive outcomes they had personally achieved. Careful consideration was given to the consistency and frequency of different assumptions or narratives, because where participants were painting a negative or critical perspective, they would sometimes offer contradictory

positive affirmations directly after, however these were not in keeping with their overall narrative tone. Assessing frequency is supported by Smith, Jarman and Osborn (1999).

At the end of the third HC, the right hermeneutic was considerably condensed for most transcripts. The iterative process had brought together many individual concepts under superordinate proto-themes. Superordinate themes could be categorised as those which told a progressive story, and those which described stable or stuck situations. There were also proto-themes which represented tangential concepts individual to each case. A sample page of an example transcript at this stage is in Appendix 8.5.25.

8.5.23.4 Fourth and Fifth Hermeneutic

The fourth hermeneutic cycle initially began by reviewing the conceptual fit of proto-themes from the third HC. There were only minor changes in most cases, however in one case, it was decided that some of the contradictory views that had been expressed merited the construction of an additional proto-theme specific to their type of contradiction against authority notions. Coding was also structured in NVivo to accommodate this authority perspective as a related potential theme shared amongst participants.

At this point the fourth HCs were also found to be at different stages with different transcripts. Although the order of reviewing the transcripts up until this point has been as described, there were notable differences that emerged in style in some areas. This was because regrettably there had been long delays in between some transcripts at

different HC stages. Emerging themes for two of the transcripts had taken on a different style of organisation in the second and third HCs which had not adequately captured continuing narratives throughout the transcript – particularly in regard to the left hermeneutic for the sections of the transcript after the semi structured questions. Therefore for these transcripts a meticulous review restructured both sides of the hermeneutic, especially emergent superordinate constructs.

Restructuring previous HCs is a difficult decision to make because it represents a considerable bias on behalf of the researcher (Brocki & Wearden, 2006; Elliott & Timulak, 2005). This concern is magnified when it is made to seemingly make better fit with other transcripts (Callary, Rathwell & Young, 2015). The two transcripts in questions were the first two, where the researcher did not have the experience, and had not completely comprehended the overall 'mind-set' of the data. The approach therefore was an attempt to improve the standard of the hermeneutic analyses. A rigorous process of exploring interconnection between passages within the transcript, as well as sub textual content allowed the researcher to correct an error which otherwise would have distorted the data.

After the review process for the fourth hermeneutic, emergent themes had begun to show overlap with those from other cases. They key difference was more fluid narratives connecting the responses to different questions together. The next step was to draw upon the emerged interconnection and commonality between themes, in order to establish shared terminology and some universal superordinate themes. As previously discussed, Reid, Flowers and Larkin (2005) support the justification for developing integrated themes in this manner, whilst maintaining individual

hermeneutic processes for each case, providing the developed themes are still accurate reflections of the meaning behind the original transcripts.

In contrast to the approach taken with student interviews, teacher interviews were iteratively reduced without the need to remove or dismiss incongruities. Rather the approach involved isolated common threads, and organising them in terms of different narrative perspectives – presenting something rather like different ways of approaching similar problems. Where narratives were unique or did not fit with other perspectives in this manner, the left hermeneutic of the fifth HC was key in maintaining accurate summaries of these specifics, and not allowing the theme construction to wash away personal contribution. In the right hermeneutic these unique experiences were then named as proto-themes. This approach was taken because the intention with the teacher interviews was to provide detailed insight and to consider the participants experts in their own experience of practice (Brocki & Wearden, 2006).

At the end of the fifth HC, superordinate themes had become balanced between content, and reflection of the complex hermeneutic analysis. Particular changes of note at the final stage included interaction between superordinate themes. 'Justice' for instance was seldom discussed directly in transcripts, however pathways or narratives to achieving or failing to provide justice (from the perspective of the participants) was key to orienting action of viewpoint in several themes. This and other recurring tides ebbed and flowed between themes, and were depicted emotionally or passionately.

Finally, although with a sample of only seven participants, division by cases or classifiers is not statistically supportable, there was a divide in many themes that

appeared between different teachers from schools. At this stage, each participant had key themes, and there was cross-over with some superordinate themes between participants. Therefore comparisons were able to be made based on each individual superordinate theme. This is compatible with the approach suggested by Smith and Osborn (2003), where the themes of an individual participant are used as the basis for relative comparisons with others. Although the fourth and fifth HC had not found justification for schools as cases for final theme organisation, themes at the end of the fifth HC now incorporated common theme polarities for several of the themes, which represented two pairs of schools (as opposed to four separate schools) when explored through this process of cross-comparison.

Appendix 8.5.26 outlines the peak levels of the hierarchy of themes at the end the fifth HC.

8.5.24 Teacher IPA Sample Page Preliminary Transcript Preparation

P	1	I don't think it's positive at the time for that student [,] if you're trying to get them to work
	2	in a group that [BA] A) they don't want to work with or B) there is somebody who finds it
	3	difficult to work with people [,] but in the long term [PS][SA] actually it is positive because in
	4	life these students [AC] are going to need to work in teams and groups and [IN][SA] they can't
	5	just be on their own all the time
R	6	How does inclusion impact your teaching practice?
P	7	Um [HES] although today is not a good example with the way the tables are set out [IN] this is
	8	just for mock exams. [HA] Normally my tables are grouped in groups [PS] or in more of a
	9	horseshoe shape. [AC] I'd say the nature of the layout of the room is important because that
	10	encourages students to work with each other rather than be isolated individuals. [HES] In terms
	11	of individual students we have information on the SIM system, [CO] so I know the students I'm
	12	working with and their needs [PS] so I would make sure that [CO] I've planned adequately for
	13	what I want them to learn, [IN] if I need extra support such as extra resources or applying the
	14	TA effectively, giving them tasks to work in small groups or individuals. Um [HES][AC] I was
	15	going to say something else.
R	16	How do you see the use of TA's fitting in to the model of inclusion?
P	17	Um [HES] so for example we run a phonics programme [,] and there are different levels of
	18	phonics ability within the classes [PS] but also across the year groups, [AC] and the TA's are vital
	19	with working within small groups to make sure that everybody is included in [HA] the right
	20	programme and their needs are met. On a kind of classroom level with GCSE [PS] the TA's will
	21	work with small groups or Individuals [HES] and that normally comes from my marking, so
	22	obviously there will be key students that the TA's will be working with [STOP][HES] but also as
	23	well [PS] if I feel that I've marked three or four bits of work where that student needs some
	24	support [BA] some more specialised support [IN] there's obviously only one of me [STOP] So a
	25	TA will be really useful then [PS][CO] I can say 'based on this marking I feel as though you could
	26	really do with some extra support [PS][HA] can you work with Miss [redacted] today'
R	27	OK. Do you think TA's can ever get in the way of inclusion?
P	28	Um [HES] what do you mean?
R	29	Is having some students work with a TA ever a barrier to achieving inclusion?
P	30	Um [HES] from my experience no [HES][SA] but I could see [IN] in theory how that could
	31	happen in the sense that in the past [HES] **NOT HERE** [PS][SA] but I've experienced the extra
	32	member of staff taking over and doing the work for another student [AC] so that isn't really
	33	inclusive, that's more exclusive in that sense

Notation:

[PS] : pause
[HES] : hesitation
[INA] : inaudible speech
[...] : implied continuation
[STOP] : full stop / sentence end
[,] : natural pause / comma
[CO] : Confident

[BA] : bitter or angry tone
[SA] : sad or regretful tone
[HA] : happy or enthusiastic tone
[AC] : actively contemplative, in thought
[IN] : Indignant
TEXT: strong or forceful tone
[redacted] : Redaction

Illustration 8.13 Teacher Preliminary Transcript Preparation

8.5.25 Teacher IPA Sample Page Third HC Transcript and Commentary

Text Range	Left Hermeneutic	Right Hermeneutic
1(1) – 5(7), WTS	Suggests that inclusion may be unhelpful in settings where cooperation is an issue. Implies that cooperation is the fault of some individuals. Students who do not work well in class cooperatively will have social problems as adults. Considerable indecision about position on pros/cons of inclusion. Antisocial behaviour is intentional by some students. [WTS] Students with SpLD should make more effort to help themselves	**Conflict of inclusion definition** **Inclusion doesn't work here** Life long issues **Social skills risk** Expected outcomes like Kirk & Reid?
7(1) – 10(11), WTS	Uncomfortable/unprepared to answer question on inclusion. Inclusion is about practical steps to encourage social behaviours. Students isolate themselves, this should be discouraged [WTS] Focus on learning strategies to encourage normalised behaviour	**Poor understanding of Inclusion** cooperation as target **Structurally imposed values**
11(1) – 15(5), 17(1) – 19(12), WTS	Reliant on computer information to "know" student needs. SpLD students need resources, so inclusion is about organising resources. Inclusion includes exclusionary support. Exclusion is "vital" to meet needs. Phonics support delivered by TAs in separate support groups away from peers. This is positive and welcomed. The system means the teacher is well resourced / enabled to deliver inclusion. [WTS][1] primary focus on teaching is "speaking about targets, learning objectives" [WTS][2] Teacher perceptions of students with SpLD informed by computer system [WTS][3] School policy is teachers 'outsource' inclusion to TA/ SENCO	**Inclusion as resources** **Conflict of inclusion definition** Differentiation Inclusion by numbers?

Illustration 8.14 *Teacher Third Hermeneutic Cycle*

7.4.25 *(… continued)* Teacher IPA Sample Page Third HC Transcript and Commentary

19(13) – 33(6), WTS	Access to support and resources is inclusion. Targetted intervention is successful inclusion. Teacher has limited resources, so TAs and exclusionary support is necessary. The influence of the teacher reaches to the student through the TA. There mutual benefit for teacher and student. Teacher decides who needs support when, based on grades. There are "key" students who HAVE TO work with TAs, NOT regular class. Bad / overzealous TAs can disrupt inclusion, but not teachers who assign them? This school provides the right type of 'inclusion. Inclusion/exclusion is about access to the appropriate learning content. Differentiation is suitable for all students, because it's a catch-all approach [WTS][1] Inclsuion doesn't mean "every student doing the same thing" [WTS][2] Ways to improve inclusive practice would be more access to resources [WTS][3] tasks which visibily separate students from peers are ok, as long as you explain to the student why they are doing it	**Inclusion as resources** accessibility oriented language **Conflict of inclusion definition** **Student is their grade** Teachers overworked / limted in what they can do TAs good for students **Neglect psychosocial impact**

Illustration 8.14 *Teacher Third Hermeneutic Cycle*

8.5.26 Teacher IPA Theme Composite Overview

Psychological Wellbeing at Risk ↓	Support Teachers to Support SpLDs ↓	Can Inclusion Work? ↓
Concerned	**Training poor**	**Including**
Drawing theoretical connections	University doesn't teach enough on inclusion / SpLDs	Determined/dedicated to inclusion and supportive
Identifies wellbeing related to learning	Further training opportunities poor	Relationship between wellbeing and inclusion
Identifies student personal development	**Too few resources**	Prioritise student comfort
Social risks	Not enough time to prepare resources	Access to good resources
SpLDs more vulnerable than typical peers	No access to required resources	**Sensitive**
Repeated patterns of issues	Other staff not cooperative in inclusion	Tool / delivery focussed
Low elf-esteem due to learning experiences	Targets prevent good practice	Identification of partial obstacles to inclusion
Frustration, bullying, truancy	**Confusion over best practice / inclusion**	Accept limitations, but still positive/progressive
Concern over labelling students/SpLDs	Some teachers don't see inclusion as their job	**Disparaging**
Connection between bullying and labelling	**Students responsible (neg) for not be included**	TAs are necessary to provide individuation
Learning tasks to boost self-esteem	Behaviour problems inhibit teaching inclusively	Time and resources limit inclusion
Disregarding	**Tick list teaching / performative**	SpLDs have insurmountable limitations
SpLDs not vulnerable / no different needs	Standards are external – teachers not in control	**Parochial**
Bullying minimized	**Access to special resources**	Utilitarianism defeats inclusion because of meritocracy
Focus on learning goals above emotional needs	Staff able to work supportively	Inclusion that doesn't 'get in the way' is fine
Pro labelling for education / differentiation	Staff gives specialist individual support	TAs include, not teachers
Motivation defined as individual difference	**High level of training**	Wellbeing is not teachers' job
Owness of student issues on student	All levels of staff have specialist knowledge	**Averse**
Poor behaviour blamed on students	Regular internal training / professional development	Inclusion afflicts those who can't cope
Minimal knowledge about wellbeing	**School supports teachers to be inclusive**	Low ability students waste teacher time
		Inclusion policy is unrealistic – one size doesn't fit all

Illustration 8.15 Teacher IPA Theme Composite Overview

8.7 Chapter 7 Appendices

8.7.1 Policy Proposal Summary

1) Re-education of all School Stakeholders

Key stakeholders currently lack essential understanding. Training classroom structures and school community constructs needs to be informed by psychotherapeutic wellbeing discourse. Training must also cover the value of alternative learning assessment approaches for wellbeing and attainment.

Training needs to target all identified stakeholders. Training must outline the various responsibilities and underscore the whole school approach.

2) Establishment of School Community Resources for Inclusion and Wellbeing

Schools already have access to a wide range of internal and external resources that are not utilised effectively. These include personnel specialisms, activities and opportunities, and funding streams, and collective operating capacities.

School policy should identify and direct stakeholders with relevant roles and responsibilities to these resources. They should also actively participate in the creation and maintenance of these resources.

3) Vulnerability needs to be redefined

Vulnerability needs to be recognised and treated as a phenomenon that exists beyond safeguarding definitions, or standardised disability labels. School policy

should recognise vulnerability as situational, and target and improve these situations.

Vulnerability language and discourse in the school should be normalised and included as part of traversing school experience by promoting open opportunities to discuss feelings and for personal growth

4) **SENCOs Should be Given Increased Control over Whole School Policies**

The specialist knowledge of SENCOs is essential to the creation of inclusive schools. SENCOs should be given increased policy input over inclusion, as opposed to providing support for SEND students. SENCO led inclusive support should be open to all students, and should prioritise social and learning equality.

5) **Assessment Criteria Should be Changed from Performative Output Progressively Towards Multiple Competencies and Agency**

Current standardised assessment should be gradually phased out and replaced with means of assessment that are tailored to demonstrate competency and individual development. Students should be free to select their modality of expression and assessment, where content and understanding is focussed on. This must be facilitated by intensive exploration for each individual student of their preferred approaches.

Competency based assessment should replace uni-modal approaches. Engaged holistic teaching approaches and assessments should be used to support individual learning scaffolding through emersion. Assessment should be outcome focussed rather than assess articulation and transcriptive outputs.

6) **Smaller Class Sizes**

Small class sizes are important in order to achieve the level of engagement that is necessary for students to feel understood in the classroom.

7) **Early Intervention and Identification Resources School Wide**

Schools should prioritise learning support assessments from entry into school, and on an ongoing basis. Assessments should prioritise student voice and examine individual needs and capacities, rather than variation from central tendencies.

Assessment and support should always be delivered for all students.

8.7.2 Practice Proposal Summary

1) Prioritise Early Engagement

Early engagement refers to engagement in the current teacher-student relationship. All teacher student relationships should be explicitly individual and begin with appropriate consultation engagement and assessment.

Teachers should address their practice and delivery as managed portions of critical engagement. The context subtly changes with the subject or requirements, and the critically engaged pedagogue needs to address the needs of each student in the class regarding this.

Feedback is a useful tool for teachers, however inclusive engagement demands understanding ongoing experiences of their students.

2) Engagement Should Comprise a Form of Early Assessment, Prior to Instruction and Performance

Teachers should increase the amount of informal assessment they conduct. Assessment should evaluate aspects of development beyond educational attainment. Assessment should focus on growth and development, rather than comparative assessments. Teachers need to conduct assessments by talking with students individually, as well as through observations while supporting them with their learning.

3) Identify and Interrupt Cycles of Disengagement

Teachers need to be trained to identify cyclical behaviours and trends that can lead to disengagement. Disengagement should be managed through interventions that are based on consultation with the student.

Disengagement should be countered drawing on the community and collective resources, and reengagement tools should be used routinely, not to draw exception to marginal groups.

4) Reduce / Eliminate Classroom Goal Structures

Teaching structures should aim to reduce or eliminate comparative competition. Competition should be targeted towards communally positive ends.

Classroom goal structures should be replaced with progressive and individual goal structures. Goal attainment should be individually appraised in consultation with the teacher.

Exploratory and self-led forms of attainment should be optional as alternatives for teachers to avoid goal structures.

5) Teachers to Participate in Multidisciplinary Practice Groups Regarding All Students

Teaching staff and other multidisciplinary professionals should be included in practice groups, including educational psychologists, counsellors, teaching assistants, and SENCOs. Practice groups should postulate and explore interpretations of individual student outcomes.

Practice groups should not be limited to students who are doing poorly academically, or have otherwise identified issues. This is important to engage multidisciplinary professionals and their specialist knowledge in the multi epistemologically informed classroom.

6) Teach Inclusive Values to Students

Whole school inclusive ethos and values should be instructed as part of programmes such as Personal, social, health and economic studies (PSHE), Healthy Schools Programme, Citizenship, and Social, Emotional and Mental Health (SEMH) (Leeds City Council, 2017).

7) Teachers to Integrate Psychotherapeutic Tools into All Teaching Structures

Teachers should transact education in terms of relationships, exchanges and person-centred attention to needs. Teaching should be used to enhance confidence and to allow each individual student to explore and push the boundaries of their abilities. Identity development and individuality and uniqueness should be encouraged through the teaching process, and knowledge should be addressed through personal development language, not just as attainment in knowledge transfer.

9 . References

This section contains an alphebetised reference list for the study.

Abas, H., & Zaman, H. B. (2011, July). Scaffolding models for remedial students in using augmented reality storybook. In Electrical Engineering and Informatics (ICEEI), 2011 International Conference on (pp. 1-5). IEEE.

Adderley, Z. T. (2013). Predicting academic outcomes for third grade students: Examining the reading achievement of diverse students using the diagnostic lens of the dynamic indicators of Basic Early Literacy Skills (Doctoral thesis). University of South Florida, Tampa, Florida

Addy, L. (1998). Developing handwriting through kinaesthetic training. Dyspraxia Foundation Professional Journal, 16

Addy, L., & Dixon, G. (2013). Making inclusion work for children with dyspraxia: practical strategies for teachers. London: Routledge.

Adèr, H. J., Mellenbergh, G. J., & Hand, D. J. (2008). Advising on research methods: A consultant's companion. Huizen, The Netherlands: Johannes van Kessel Publishing

Adi, Y., Kiloran, A., Janmohamed, K., & Stewart-Brown, S. (2007). Systematic review of the effectiveness of interventions to promote mental wellbeing in primary schools Report 1: Universal approaches which do not focus on violence or bullying. UK: National Institute for Health and Clinical Excellence

Adi-Japha, E., Landau, Y. E., Frenkel, L., Teicher, M., Gross-Tsur, V., & Shalev, R. S. (2007). ADHD and dysgraphia: underlying mechanisms. Cortex, 43(6), 700-709.

Adluri, V. (2013). Heidegger, Luther, and Aristotle. Epoché: A Journal for the History of Philosophy, 18(1), 129-160.

Agrawal, A., & Lynskey, M. T. (2008). Are there genetic influences on addiction: evidence from family, adoption and twin studies. Addiction, 103(7), 1069-1081.

Ainscow, M., Booth, T., & Dyson, A. (2006). Improving schools, developing inclusion (Vol. 5). London: Routledge.

Ainsworth, M. S. (1979). Infant–mother attachment. American psychologist, 34(10), 932.

Alatartseva, E., & Barysheva, G. (2015). Well-being: subjective and objective aspects. Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences, 166, 36-42.

Alexander, B. K., Anderson, G. L., & Gallegos, B. (2004). Performance theories in education: Power, pedagogy, and the politics of identity. London: Routledge.

Alexander-Passe, N. (2006). How dyslexic teenagers cope: an investigation of self-esteem, coping and depression. Dyslexia, 12(4), 256–275.

Alexander-Passe, N. (2007). The Sources and Manifestations of Stress Amongst School-aged Dyslexics, Compared with Sibling Controls, Dyslexia, 14, 291–313.

Alexander-Passe, N. (2010). Dyslexia and depression: The hidden sorrow. New York: Nova Science.

Alexander-Passe, N. (2015). Dyslexia and Mental Health: Helping people identify destructive behaviours and find positive ways to cope. London: Jessica Kingsley Publishers.

Alexander-Passe, N. (2017). Diagnosis–why was I not Diagnosed at School?. In N. Alexander-Passe (Ed), The Successful Dyslexic. Rotterdam: SensePublishers.

Ali, A. (2002). The convergence of Foucault and feminist psychiatry: Exploring emancipatory knowledge-building. Journal of Gender Studies, 11(3), 233-242.

Al-Hroub, A. (2010). Literacy and Mathematics: Perceptual skills and Arabic literacy patterns for mathematically gifted children with specific learning difficulties. British Journal of Special Education, 37(1), 25-38.

Al-Wabil, A., Meldah, E., Al-Suwaidan, A., & AlZahrani, A. (2010). Designing Educational Games for Children with Specific Learning Difficulties: Insights from Involving Children and Practitioners. In Computing in the Global Information Technology (ICCGI), 2010 Fifth International Multi-Conference. New York: IEEE.

Allan, J. (1995). Pupils with special educational needs in mainstream schools: a Foucauldian anaylsis of discourses (Doctoral Thesis). University of Stirling, Stirling, UK.

Allan, J. (2003). Productive pedagogies and the challenge of inclusion. British Journal of Special Education, 30(4), 175-179.

Allan, J. (2004). Deterritorializations: Putting postmodernism to work on teacher education and inclusion. Educational Philosophy and Theory, 36(4), 417-432.

Allan, J. (2007). Rethinking inclusive education: The philosophers of difference in practice (Vol. 5). Berlin: Springer Science & Business Media.

Allen, T. D., Eby, L. T., Conley, K. M., Williamson, R. L., Mancini, V. S., & Mitchell, M. E. (2015). What do we really know about the effects of mindfulness-based training in the workplace?. Industrial and Organizational Psychology, 8(4), 652-661.

Alloway, T. P. (2006). How does working memory work in the classroom?, Educational Research and Reviews, 1(4), 134-139.

Alloway, T. P., Gathercole, S. E., & Pickering, S. J. (2006). Verbal and visuospatial short-term and working memory in children: Are they separable?. Child development, 77(6), 1698-1716.

Allwight, D. (2003). Exploratory Practice: rethinking practitioner research in language teaching, Language Teaching Research, 7(2), 113–141

Altemeier, L., Abbott, R., & Berninger, V. (2008). Executive functions for reading and writing in typical literacy development and dyslexia. Journal of Clinical and Experimental Neuropsychology, 30, 588–606.

Alty, J. L., Al-Sharrah, A., & Beacham, N. (2006). When humans form media and media form humans: An experimental study examining the effects different digital media have on the learning outcomes of students who have different learning styles. Interacting with Computers, 18(5), 891-909.

Alvesson, M. (2010). Interpreting interviews. London: Sage.

Alvesson, M., & Sköldberg, K. (2017). Reflexive methodology: New vistas for qualitative research. London: Sage.

Amato, P. R., & Zuo, J. (1992). Rural Poverty, Urban Poverty, and Psychological Well - Being. The Sociological Quarterly, 33(2), 229-240.

Amiripour, P., Bijan-zadeh, M. H., Pezeshki, P., & Najafi, M. (2011). Effects of assistive technology instruction on increasing motivation and capacity of mathematical problem solving in dyscalculia students. Educational Research, 2(10), 1611–1618

Anderson, G. L. (1990). Toward a critical constructivist approach to school administration: Invisibility, legitimation, and the study of non-events, Educational Administration Quarterly, 26(1), 38-59

Anderson, G. L., & Grinberg, J. (1998). Educational administration as a disciplinary practice: Appropriating Foucault's view of power, discourse, and method. Educational Administration Quarterly, 34(3), 329-353.

Anderson, J. R. (2000). Learning and memory: An integrated approach. New York: John Wiley & Sons.

Anderson, J., & Gristy, C. (2013). Coaching of staff in schools: what can we learn from the new role of the Masters in Teaching and Learning in-school coach for schools and the higher education tutors working alongside them?. Journal of Education for Teaching, 39(1), 107-122.

Anderson, R. (2009). ‘They're telling me what I already know instead of what I don't know’: dyslexic pupils' experiences of withdrawal tuition during the later primary years. Support for Learning, 24(2), 55-61.

Anderson, R. C. (2006). Teaching (with) disability: Pedagogies of lived experience. The Review of Education, Pedagogy, and Cultural Studies, 28(3-4), 367-379.

Andreou, E., Didaskalou, E., & Vlachou, A. (2015). Bully/victim problems among Greek pupils with special educational needs: associations with loneliness and self‐efficacy for peer interactions. Journal of Research in Special Educational Needs, 15(4), 235-246.

Andrews, K., & Palmer, L. A. (2016). Blackness in Britain (Vol. 15). London: Routledge.

Annable, G., Goggin, G., & Stienstra, D. (2007). Accessibility, disability, and inclusion in information Technologies: Introduction. The Information Society, 23, 145–147.

Apple, M. W. (2013). Education and power. London: Routledge.

Arksey, H. (2004) Semi-structured and Unstructured Interviewing. In Becker, S. and Bryman, A. (Eds), Understanding Research for Social Policy and Practice. Bristol: Policy Press

Armstrong, D. (2014). Educator perceptions of children who present with social, emotional and behavioural difficulties: A literature review with implications for recent educational policy in England and internationally. International Journal of Inclusive Education, 18(7), 731-745.

Armstrong, D., & Humphrey, N. (2008). Reactions to a diagnosis of dyslexia among students entering further education: development of the 'resistance–accommodation' model. British Journal of Special Education, 36(2), 95-102.

Armstrong, D., Armstrong, A. C., & Spandagou, I. (2011). Inclusion: by choice or by chance?. International Journal of Inclusive Education, 15(1), 29-39.

Artz, A. F. & Armour-thomas, E. (1999). A cognitive model for examining teachers' instructional practice in mathematics: a guide for facilitating teacher reflection. Educational Studies in Mathematics, 40, 211-235

Arvaja, M., Salovaara, H., Häkkinen, P., & Järvelä, S. (2007). Combining individual and group-level perspectives for studying collaborative knowledge construction in context. Learning and Instruction, 17(4), 448-459

Ashburn, D. L. & Snow, B. K. (2011). Dyslexia: Awareness and Intervention in the Classroom (Doctoral Thesis). California State University, Sacramento., California

Athay, M. M., Kelley, S. D. & Dew-Reeves, S. E. (2012). Brief Multidimensional Students' Life Satisfaction Scale—PTPB Version (BMSLSS-PTPB): Psychometric Properties and Relationship with Mental Health Symptom Severity Over Time. Administration and Policy in Mental Health and Mental Health Services Research, 39 (1-2), 30-40

Atkinson, J., Nelson, J., & Atkinson, C. (2010). Trauma, transgenerational transfer and effects on community wellbeing. Working Together, 135.

Atkinson, R. C., & Shiffrin, R. M. (1968). Human memory: A proposed system and its control processes. The psychology of learning and motivation, 2, 89-195

Austin, M., Mitchell, P. & Goodwin, G. M. (2001). The Cognitive Deficits in Depression. British Journal of Psychiatry, 178, 200-206

Avramidis, E., & Norwich, B. (2002). Teachers' attitudes towards integration/inclusion: A review of the literature. European Journal of Special Needs Education, 17(2), 129-147

Avramidis, E., Bayliss, P., & Burden, R. (2000). Student teachers' attitudes towards the inclusion of children with special educational needs in the ordinary school. Teaching and teacher education, 16(3), 277-293.

Avramidis, E., Bayliss, P., & Burden, R. (2002). Inclusion in action: an in-depth case study of an effective inclusive secondary school in the south-west of England. International Journal of Inclusive Education, 6(2), 143-163.

Avramidis, E., Lawson, H., & Norwich, B. (2010). Difficulties in learning literacy. In D. Wyse, R. Andrews & J. Hoffman, The Routledge International Handbook Series. London: Routledge.

Bacon, A. M. & Handley, S. J. (2010). Dyslexia and reasoning: The importance of visual processes. British Journal of Psychology, 101, 433–452.

Baddeley, A. D., & Hitch, G. (1974). Working memory. In G. H. Bower (Ed), Psychology of learning and motivation (Vol. 8). New York: Academic press.

Baines, L. (2008). A teachers guide to multisensory learning: Improving literacy by engaging the senses. Association for Supoervision and Curriculum Development (ASCD)

Baird, J. (2007). Alternative Conceptions to Comparability. In P. Newton, J. Baird, H. Goldstein, H. Patrick and P. Tymms, Techniques for monitoring the comparability of examination standards. London: Qualifications and Curriculum Authority

Baker, E. T., Wang, M. C., & Walberg, H. J. (1994). The effects of inclusion on learning. Educational leadership, 52(4), 33-35.

Baker, S. F., & Ireland, J. L. (2007). The link between dyslexic traits, executive functioning, impulsivity and social self-esteem among an offender and non-offender sample. International journal of law and psychiatry, 30(6), 492–503.

Balbernie, R. (2001). Circuits and circumstances: The neurobiological consequences of early relationship experiences and how they shape later behaviour. Journal of child psychotherapy, 27(3), 237-255.

Ball, S. J. (2003). The teacher's soul and the terrors of performativity. Journal of education policy, 18(2), 215-228.

Ball, S. J. (2010). New class inequalities in education: Why education policy may be looking in the wrong place! Education policy, civil society and social class. International Journal of Sociology and Social Policy, 30(3/4), 155-166.

Ball, S. J. (2010). New Voices, New Knowledges and the New Politics of Education Research: the gathering of a perfect storm?. European Educational Research Journal, 9(2), 124-137.

Ball, S. J. (2013). Foucault and education: Disciplines and knowledge. London: Routledge.

Bandura, A. (1994). Self-efficacy. In V. S. Ramachaudran (Ed.), Encyclopedia of Human Behavior, 4, 71-81.

Banks, M. (2001) Visual Methods in Social Research. London: Sage

Barth, J. M., Dunlap, S. T., Dane, H., Lochman, J. E., & Wells, K. C. (2004). Classroom environment influences on aggression, peer relations, and academic focus. Journal of School Psychology, 42(2), 115-133.

Barton, L. (2013). Market ideologies, education and the challenge for inclusion. World Yearbook of Education 1999: Inclusive Education, 54.

Baumeister, R. F., Bratslavsky, E., Finkenauer, C., & Vohs, K. D. (2001). Bad is stronger than good. Review of general psychology, 5(4), 323.

Bayliss, P. (1995). Reluctant innovators: Meeting special educational needs in a middle school. Support for Learning, 10(4), 170-176.

Beacham, N. A., & Alty, J. L. (2006). An investigation into the effects that digital media can have on the learning outcomes of individuals who have dyslexia. Computers & Education, 47, 74–93.

Beauchamp, C., & Thomas, L. (2009). Understanding teacher identity: An overview of issues in the literature and implications for teacher education. Cambridge journal of education, 39(2), 175-189.

Beck, L. G. (2012). The Complexity and Coherence of Educational Communities: An Analysis of the Images that Reflect and Influence Scholarship and Practice. In G. Furman, School as Community: From Promise to Practice. Albany, NY: State University of New York

Beck, J., & Young, M. F. (2005). The assault on the professions and the restructuring of academic and professional identities: a Bernsteinian analysis. British journal of sociology of education, 26(2), 183-197.

Beers, K. (2003). When kids can't read, what teachers can do. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

Bell, S. (2013). Professional development for specialist teachers and assessors of students with literacy difficulties/dyslexia:'to learn how to assess and support children with dyslexia'. Journal of Research in Special Educational Needs, 13(1), 104-113.

Belton, T. (2000) 'The "Face at the Window" Study: A Fresh Approach to Media Influence and to Investigating the Influence of Television and Videos on Children's Imagination'. Media, Culture & society 22(5), 629–43.

Bender, W. & Wall, M. E. (1994). Social-Emotional Development of Students with Learning Disabilities. Learning Disability Quarterly, 17, 323–41

Beran, T. N. (2006). Preparing teachers to manage school bullying: The hidden curriculum. The Journal of Educational Thought (JET)/Revue de la Pensée Educative, 119-128.

Bereiter, C. (1997). Situated cognition and how to overcome it. In D. Kirshner and J. A. Whitson (Eds), Situated cognition: Social, semiotic, and psychological perspectives. Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

Bergold, J. & Thomas, S. (2012). Participatory Research Methods: A Methodological Approach in Motion. Participatory Qualitative Research, 13(1), Retrieved January 6th, 2013, Available online: http://www.qualitative-research.net/index.php/fqs/article/view/1801/3334#g2

Berk, L., & Winsler, A. (1995). Vygotsky: His life and works and Vygotsky's approach to development. In L. Berk and A. Winsler (Eds), Scaffolding children's learning: Vygotsky and early childhood learning. Washington, DC: National Association for Education of Young Children.

Bernauer, J. & Rasmussen, D. (1994). The Final Foucault, third printing. Cambridge, Massachusetts: The MIT Press

Berninger, V. W. & Wolf, B. (2009). Helping Students with Dyslexia and Dysgraphia Make Connections: Differentiated Instruction Lesson Plans in Reading and Writing. Baltimore: Brookes Publishing Company

Berninger, V. W., Abbott, R. D., Thomson, J., Wagner, R., Swanson, H. L., Wijsman, E. M., & Raskind, W. (2006). Modeling phonological core deficits within a working memory architecture in children and adults with developmental dyslexia. Scientific Studies of Reading, 10(2), 165-198.

Berninger, V. W., Raskind, W., Richards, T., Abbott, R. & Stock, P. (2008a). A Multidisciplinary Approach to Understanding Developmental Dyslexia Within working-memory Architecture: Genotypes, Phenotypes, Brain, and Instruction, Developmental Neuropsychology. 33(6), 707-744.

Berninger, V., Nielsen, K., Abbott, R., Wijsman, E. & Raskind, W. (2008b). Writing Problems in Developmental Dyslexia: Under recognised and under treated. Journal of the School of Psychology, 46, 1-21.

Besley, T., & Peters, M. A. (2007). Subjectivity & truth: Foucault, education, and the culture of self. New York: Peter Lang.

Beutel, M. E., Glaesmer, H., Wiltink, J., Marian, H. & Brahler, E. (2010). Life satisfaction, anxiety, depression and resilience across the life span of men. The Aging Male, 13(1), 32-39.

Bhagat, F. (2007). Exploring inclusion and challenging policy in mainstream education. British Journal of Nursing, 16(21), 1254-1359.

Bhandari, A., & Goyal, G. (2004). Learning disabilities: Nature, causes and interventions. Counselling: Theory, Research and Practice, 163-187.

Bickmore, S. T., Smagorinsky, P., & O'Donnell-Allen, C. (2005). Tensions between traditions: The role of contexts in learning to teach. English Education, 38(1), 23-52.Biesta, G. J., & Egéa-Kuehne, D. (2005). Derrida & education. London: Routledge.

Bigger, S. (2011). elf and Others: Relational Pedagogy for Critical Pupil Engagement. In: Swindon Philosophical Society, 14

Biggerstaff, D., & Thompson, A. R. (2008). Interpretative phenomenological analysis (IPA): A qualitative methodology of choice in healthcare research. Qualitative Research in Psychology, 5(3), 214-224.

Birbeck, D. J. & Drummond, M. J. N. (2007). Research with Young Children: Contemplating Methods and Ethics, Journal of Educational Enquiry, 7(2), 21-31

Black, C., Chan, V., MacLardie, J., & Murray, L. (2009). Research on the consultation on the next generation of national qualifications in Scotland. Scottish Government (Scotland).

Black, P., & Wiliam, D. (2005). Lessons from around the world: How policies, politics and cultures constrain and afford assessment practices. Curriculum Journal, 16(2), 249-261.

Black, R. (2007). Crossing the Bridge: Overcoming Entrenched Disadvantage through Student-centred Learning. Online Submission. Retrieved January 6th, 2013, Available online: https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED501899.pdf

Black-Hawkins, K., & Florian, L. (2012). Classroom teachers' craft knowledge of their inclusive practice. Teachers and Teaching, 18(5), 567-584.

Blamires, M. (1999). Universal Design for Learning: Re‐establishing Differentiation as Part of the Inclusion Agenda?. Support for Learning, 14(4), 158-163.

Bland, K., & Sleightholme, S. (2012). Researching the pupil voice: what makes a good teaching assistant?. Support for Learning, 27(4), 172-176.

Blanken, G., Dorn, M. & Sinn, J. (1997). Inversion Errors in Arabic Number Reading: Is There a Nonsemantic Route?. Brain and Cognition, 24, 404-423.

Blase, J., & Blase, J. (1999). Principals' instructional leadership and teacher development: Teachers' perspectives. Educational Administration Quarterly, 35(3), 349-378.

Boetsch, E. A., Green, P. A., & Pennington, B. F. (1996). Psychosocial correlates of dyslexia across the life span. Development and Psychopathology, 8(3), 539-562.

Bogdan, R., & Biklen, S. K. (1997). Qualitative research for education. Boston, MA: Allyn & Bacon.

Bond, R., & Castagnera, E. (2006). Peer supports and inclusive education: An underutilized resource. Theory into Practice, 45(3), 224-229.

Bonell, C., Humphrey, N., Fletcher, A., Moore, L., Anderson, R., & Campbell, R. (2014). Why schools should promote students' health and wellbeing. Bmj, 348(7958), g3078.

Booth, T. (1996). A Perspective on Inclusion from England. Cambridge Journal of Education, 26(1), 87-99.

Booth, T. & Ainscow. M. (2011).Index for Inclusion. 3th ed.; developing learninga and participation in schools. Bristorl: CSIE

Bor, W., Dean, A. J., Najman, J., & Hayatbakhsh, R. (2014). Are child and adolescent mental health problems increasing in the 21st century? A systematic review. Australian & New Zealand Journal of Psychiatry, 48(7), 606-616.

Boulton, M. (2008). Pupils' perceptions of bullying and disruptions to concentration and attention to school work. Pastoral Care in Education, 26(2), 83-89.

Bourne, A. (2009). A Conceptual Framework of Wellbeing in Some Western Nations. Journal of Social Sciences, 2(1), 15-23.

Bowlby, J. (2005). A secure base: Clinical applications of attachment theory. New York: Taylor & Francis.

Boxall, K., Carson, I. & Docherty, D. (2004). Room at the academy? People with learning difficulties and higher education. Disability & Society, 19(2), 99-112.

Bradley, H. (2015). Fractured identities: Changing patterns of inequality. Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley & Sons.

Bradshaw, J., & Richardson, D. (2009). An index of child well-being in Europe. Child Indicators Research, 2(3), 319-351.

Bradshaw, J., Hoelscher, P. & Richardson, D. (2006). An Index of Child Well-being in the European Union, York University: Social Policy Research

Braun, A., Maguire, M., & Ball, S. J. (2010). Policy enactments in the UK secondary school: Examining policy, practice and school positioning. Journal of Education Policy, 25(4), 547-560.

Brenkert, G. G. (1981). Marx's critique of utilitarianism. Canadian Journal of Philosophy, 11(sup1), 193-220.

Breuing, M. (2011). Problematizing critical pedagogy. The International Journal of Critical Pedagogy, 3(3).

Briggs, S. (2015). Meeting Special Educational Needs in Primary Classrooms: Inclusion and how to Do it. New York: Routledge.

Brinner, J. (1999) Postmodernism and Constructivism. Retrieved March 12th, 2013, Available online: http://curriculum.calstatela.edu/faculty/psparks/theorists/htm.

Briscoe, F. M. (2005). A question of representation in educational discourse: Multiplicities and intersections of identities and positionalities. Educational studies, 38(1), 23-41.

British Dyslexia Association (2004). Unrecognised Dyslexia and the Route to Offending. Bradford: British Dyslexia Association

British Dyslexia Association (2012). Dyslexia Research Information, British Dyslexia Association. Retrieved January 9th, 2013, Available online: http://www.bdadyslexia.org.uk/about-dyslexia/further-information/dyslexia-research-information-.html

British Educational Research Association - BERA (2004) Revised ethical guidelines for educational research. Retrieved November 2nd, 2006, Available online: http://www.bera.ac.uk.

Brocki, J. M., & Wearden, A. J. (2006). A critical evaluation of the use of interpretative phenomenological analysis (IPA) in health psychology. Psychology and health, 21(1), 87-108.

Brooks, G. (2002). What Works for Children with Literacy Difficulties? The Effectiveness of Intervention Scheme, Department for Education and Skills. London: Department for Education and Skills

Brooks, G. (2007). What works for pupils with literacy difficulties? London: DCSF

Brooks, M. (2012). Evaluating Learning Disabilities and Learning Difficulties as Risk Factors of Delinquency (Honors thesis). Paper 16 The Honors College, University of Southern Mississippi, Mississippi, USA

Brosnan, M., Demetre, J., Hamill, S., Robson, K., Shepherd, H., & Cody, G. (2002). Executive functioning in adults and children with developmental dyslexia. Neuropsychologia, 40(12), 2144-2155.

Brown, D. J., Ferris, D. L., Heller, D., & Keeping, L. M. (2007). Antecedents and consequences of the frequency of upward and downward social comparisons at work. Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 102(1), 59-75.

Brown, M. (2004). Conductive Education and the Child with Dyspraxia. Dyspraxia Foundation Professional Journal, 3, 23-33.

Brubaker, R. (1993). Social Theory as Habitus. In C. Calhoun, E. LiPuma and M. Postone (Eds), Bourdieu: Critical Perspectives. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Bruck, M., Genesee, F., & Caravolas, M. (1997). A cross-linguistic study of early literacy acquisition. In B. A. Blachman (Ed), Foundations of reading acquisition and dyslexia: Implications for early intervention. New Jersey: Erlbaum

Bruner, J. (1996). The culture of education. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press

Brunswick, N. (2009). Dyslexia: a beginner's guide. Oxford: Oneworld Publications

Buckingham, D. (2009). 'Creative' visual methods in media research: possibilities, problems and proposals. Media Culture Society, 31(4), 633–652.

Bundy, A. C., Lane, S. J., Murray, E. A., & Fisher, A. G. (2002). Sensory integration: Theory and practice. Philadelphia: FA Davis

Burden, R. (2008). Is dyslexia necessarily associated with negative feelings of self‐worth? A review and implications for future research. Dyslexia, 14(3), 188-196.

Burden, R., & Burdett, J. (2005). Factors associated with successful learning in pupils with dyslexia: a motivational analysis. British Journal of special education, 32(2), 100-104.

Burden, R. L., & Snowling, M. J. (2005). Dyslexia and self-concept: Seeking a dyslexic identity. London: Whurr.

Burleson, W. (2005). Developing creativity, motivation, and self-actualization with learning systems. International Journal of Human-Computer Studies, 63(4), 436-451.

Burns, E., & Bell, S. (2011). Narrative construction of professional teacher identity of teachers with dyslexia. Teaching and Teacher Education, 27(5), 952-960.

Butler, J. (2009). Critique, dissent, disciplinarity. Critical Inquiry, 35(4), 773-795.

Butterworth, B. (2004). Developmental Dyscalculia. In J. I. D. Campbell, Handbook of Mathematical Cognition. New York: Psychology Press

Butterworth, B., Varma, S., & Laurillard, D. (2011). Dyscalculia: from brain to education. Science, 332(6033), 1049-1053.

Butzer, B., & Kuiper, N. A. (2006). Relationships between the frequency of social comparisons and self-concept clarity, intolerance of uncertainty, anxiety, and depression. Personality and individual differences, 41(1), 167-176.

Buunk, B. P., Van der Zee, K. & VanYperen, N. W. (2001). Neuroticism and Social Comparison Orientation as Moderators of Affective Responses to Social Comparison at Work. Journal of Personality, 69(5), 745-763.

Buzzelli, C., & Johnston, B. (2001). Authority, power, and morality in classroom discourse. Teaching and teacher education, 17(8), 873-884.

Byers, R., Davies, J., Fergusson, A., & Marvin, C. (2008). What about Us? Promoting Emotional Well-Being and Inclusion by Working with Young People with Learning Difficulties in Schools and Colleges. Foundation for People with Learning Disabilities (NJ1).

Byrne, B. M. (1996). Measuring Self-Concept across the Life Span: Issues and instrumentation. Washington, D.C.: American Psychological Association

Cabinet Office and Department for Children, Schools and Families (2008). Families in Britain: An Evidence Paper, Retrieved December 9th, 2011, Available online: http://publications.dcsf.gov.uk

Caccamise, D., & Snyder, L. (2005). Theory and pedagogical practices of text comprehension. Topics in language disorders, 25(1), 5-20.

Caelli, K. (2000). The changing face of phenomenological research: traditional and American phenomenology in nursing. Qualitative Health Research, 10, 366–377.

Callary, B., Rathwell, S., & Young, B. W. (2015). Insights on the process of using interpretative phenomenological analysis in a sport coaching research project. The Qualitative Report, 20(2), 63-75.

Camber, R. (2007, December 28). Dyslexia 'is just a middle-class way to hide stupidity'. The Daily Mail. Retrieved January 6th, 2013, Available online: http://www.dailymail.co.uk/news/article-458160/Dyslexia-just-middle-class-way-hide-stupidity.html

Cameron, L., & Rutland, A. (2006). Extended contact through story reading in school: Reducing children's prejudice toward the disabled. Journal of Social Issues, 62(3), 469-488.

Camfield, L., & Camfield, C. L. (2003). Using Subjective Measures of Wellbeing in Developing Countries. ESRC Research Group on Wellbeing in Developing Countries, September Issue, 10–12.

Campbell-Whatley, G. D. (2008). Teaching students about their disabilities: Increasing self-determination skills and self-concept. International Journal of Special Education, 23(2), 137-144.

Camus, A. (1968). Lyrical and critical essays (E. C. Kennedy, Trans.). New York: Knopf.

Cannella, G. S. (2000). The scientific discourse of education: Predetermining the lives of others—Foucault, education, and children. Contemporary issues in early childhood, 1(1), 36-44.

Carbone, E. (2001). Arranging the classroom with an eye (and ear) to students with ADHD. Teaching Exceptional Children, 34(2), 72-82.

Carol, J. M. & Iles, J. E. (2006). An Assessment of Anxiety Levels in Dyslexic Students in Higher Education. British Journal of Educational Psychology, 76(3), 651-662.

Caspi, A., & Moffitt, T. E. (2006). Gene–environment interactions in psychiatry: joining forces with neuroscience. Nature Reviews Neuroscience, 7(7), 583-590.

Casserly, A. M. (2012). The socio‐emotional needs of children with dyslexia in different educational settings in Ireland. Journal of Research in Special Educational Needs, 13(1), 79-91. Catalano, R. F., Oesterle, S., Fleming, C. B., & Hawkins, J. D. (2004). The importance of bonding to school for healthy development: Findings from the Social Development Research Group. Journal of School Health, 74(7), 252-261.

Chamberlain, K. (2011). Troubling methodology. Health psychology review, 5(1), 48-54.

Chambon, A. S., Irving, A., & Epstein, L. (1999). Reading Foucault for social work. Columbia: Columbia University Press.

Chang, E. C., Maydeu-Olivares, A. & D'Zurilla, T. J. (1997) Optimism and Pessimism as Partially Independent Constructs: Relationship to Positive and Negative Affectivity and Psychological Well-being. Personal Individual Differences, 23(3), 433-440.

Chang, S. H. (2012). A cultural perspective on codependency and its treatment. Asia Pacific Journal of Counselling and Psychotherapy, 3(1), 50-60.

Chanock, K. (2007). How do we not communicate about dyslexia ? – The discourses that distance scientists , disabilities staff , ALL advisers , students , and lecturers from one another. Journal of Academic Language & Learning , 1(1), 33–43.

Chapman, E., & Smith, J. A. (2002). Interpretative phenomenological analysis and the new genetics. Journal of health psychology, 7(2), 125-130.

Chapman, J. (2011) Restore elitism to our schools: Gove takes on education establishment in passionate rallying cry for a return to traditional teaching values. Daily Mail online. Retrieved January 6th, 2013, Available online:

http://www.dailymail.co.uk/news/article-2065907/Michael-Goves-rallying-return-traditional-teaching-values.html

Cherng, R. J., Liang, L. Y., Chen, Y. J., & Chen, J. Y. (2009). The effects of a motor and a cognitive concurrent task on walking in children with developmental coordination disorder. Gait & posture, 29(2), 204–7.

Chia, N.K.H. (2006). Evaluating the efficacy of the Orton-Gillingham intensive reading intervention program: Phonological performance and differential patterns of reading errors made by Singaporean children with dyslexia (Doctoral thesis), University of Western Australia, Perth, Australia

Chinn, S. (2003). Does dyscalculia add up?. Dyslexia Review, 14, 4-8.

Chirkov, V., Ryan, R. M., Kim, Y., & Kaplan, U. (2003). Differentiating autonomy from individualism and independence: a self-determination theory perspective on internalization of cultural orientations and well-being. Journal of personality and social psychology, 84(1), 97.

Cho, K. (2009). Psychopedagogy: Freud, Lacan, and the psychoanalytic theory of education. New York: Palgrave Macmillan

Cho, K. D. (2011). Objects in the Mirror: Education, Cultural Studies, and the Function of Ideology. Cultural Studies, Education, and Youth: Beyond Schools, 15-35..

Chochinov, H. M., & Cann, B. J. (2005). Interventions to enhance the spiritual aspects of dying. Journal of Palliative Medicine, 8(supplement 1), s-103.

Christian, M. I. (1999). Reasserting the philosophy of experiential education as a vehicle for change in the 21st century. The Journal of Experiential Education, Routledge, 22(2), 91-98.

Christiansen, S. L., & Palkovitz, R. (1998). Exploring Erikson's psychosocial theory of development: Generativity and its relationship to paternal identity, intimacy, and involvement in childcare. The Journal of Men’s Studies, 7(1), 133-156.

Clark, K. (2008). The pastoral academic divide: Impacts and implications for pastoral care (Doctoral thesis), Murdoch University, Perth, Australia.

Clarke, G. (2016) How does one evaluate a community wellbeing intervention such as the Five Ways to Wellbeing?. In 2nd Applied Positive Psychology Symposium

Clarke, L. (2009a). Misplaced epistemological certainty and pharmaco-centrism in mental health nursing. Journal of psychiatric and mental health nursing, 16, 199-205.

Clarke, M. (2009b). The ethico‐politics of teacher identity. Educational philosophy and theory, 41(2), 185-200.

Clarke, M., & Drudy, S. (2006). Teaching for diversity, social justice and global awareness. European Journal of Teacher Education, 29(3), 371-386.

Clarke, M., & Islam, S. (2004). Economic growth and social welfare: Operationalising normative social choice theory. Amsterdam: Elsevier BV.

Clarke, M., Islam, S. M., & Paech, S. (2006). Measuring Australia's well-being using hierarchical needs. The Journal of Socio-Economics, 35(6), 933-945.

Cléry-Melin, M. L., Schmidt, L., Lafargue, G., Baup, N., Fossati, P., & Pessiglione, M. (2011). Why don't you try harder? An investigation of effort production in major depression. PloS one, 6(8)

Clift, S., & Jensen, B. B. (2005). The health promoting school: International advances in theory, evaluation and practice. Copenhagen: Danish University of Education Press.

Clough, P., & Nutbrown, C. (2012). A student's guide to methodology. New York: Sage.

Cobb, P. & Bowers, J. (1999). Cognitive and Situated Learning Perspectives in Theory and Practice. Educational Researcher, 28(2), 4-15.

Cohen Kadosh, R. & Walsh, V. (2008). From magnitude to natural numbers: A developmental neurocognitive perspective. Behavioural and Brain Sciences, 31(6), 647-648.

Cohen, S. R. & Mount, B. M. (1992) Quality of life in terminal illness: Defining and measuring subjective well-being in the dying. Journal of Palliative Care, 8(3), 40-45.

Cohen, S., Doyle, W. J., Turner, R. B., Alper, C. M., & Skoner, D. P. (2003). Emotional style and susceptibility to the common cold. Psychosomatic medicine, 65(4), 652-657.

Cohon, R., & Owen, D. (1997). Hume on Representation, Reason and Motivation. Manuscrito, 20(2), 4769.

Colby-Kelly, C., & Turner, C. E. (2007). AFL research in the L2 classroom and evidence of usefulness: Taking formative assessment to the next level. Canadian Modern Language Review, 64(1), 9-37.

Cole, B. A. (2005). Mission impossible? Special educational needs, inclusion and the re‐conceptualization of the role of the SENCO in England and Wales. European Journal of Special Needs Education, 20(3), 287-307.

Coleman, J. S. (1988). Social Capital in the Creation of Human Capital. The American Journal of Sociology, 94, 595-620.

Collins, A. (2013). Teaching sensitive topics: Transformative pedagogy in a violent society. Alternation Special Edition, 9, 128-149.

Collinson, C., & Barden, O. (2016). Dyslexics 17 'knowing how' to challenge 'lexism'. Disability and Social Media: Global Perspectives, 227.

Collishaw, S., Maughan, B. & Pickles, A. (2004). Affective problems in adults with mild learning disability: the roles of social disadvantage and ill health. British Journal of Psychiatry, 185, 350-351.

Connor, S. (2011). Can't add up? Don't despair – you may suffer from dyscalculia. The Independent. Retrieved August 25, 2011, Available online: http://www.independent.co.uk/news/science/cant-add-up-dont-despair-ndash-you-may-suffer-from-dyscalculia-2289700.html

Cook, B. (2013). Pursuing eudaimonia: Re-appropriating the Greek philosophical foundations of the Christian apophatic tradition (Vol. 10). Cambridge: Cambridge Scholars Publishing.

Cooper, M. (2009a). Counselling in UK secondary schools: A comprehensive review of audit and evaluation data. Counselling and Psychotherapy Research, 9(3), 137-150.

Cooper, R. (2009b). Dyslexia. In D. Pollack, Neurodiversity in higher education: Positive responses to specific learning differences. John Wiley & Sons.

Coppock, V. (2010). Cause for hope or despair? Limits to theory and policy in relation to contemporary developments in promoting health and well-being in schools in the UK and implications for children's rights, Advances in School Mental Health Promotion, 3(1), 52–62.

Corbett, J. (2013). Bad mouthing: The language of special needs. London: Routledge.

Corbett, M. L. (2011). The effect of a mindfulness meditation intervention on attention, affect, anxiety, mindfulness, and salivary cortisol in school aged children (Masters thesis). Florida Atlantic University, Florida, USA.

Corrie, L., & Leitao, N. (1999). The development of wellbeing: young children's knowledge of their support networks and social competence. Australian Journal of Early Childhood, 24(3), 25-25.

Corsaro, W. A. (1997). The sociology of childhood. Children and Society, 12(4), 318-320.

Cosmides, L. & Tooby, J. (2000). Evolutionary Psychology and the Emotions. In Handbook of Emotions, 2nd Edition, M. Lewis & J. M. Haviland-Jones, Eds. NY: Guilford.

Crain, W. (2011). Theories of Development: Concepts and Applications (6th ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Education.

Crane, C., Jandric, D., Barnhofer, T., & Williams, J. M. (2010). Dispositional mindfulness, editation, and conditional goal setting. Mindfulness, 1(4), 204-214.

Craven, R. G., & Marsh, H. W. (2008). The centrality of the self-concept construct for psychological wellbeing and unlocking human potential: Implications for child and educational psychologists. Educational and Child Psychology, 25(2), 104-118.

Crawford, C., & Vignoles, A. (2010). An analysis of the educational progress of children with special educational needs (No. 10-19). Department of Quantitative Social Science-UCL Institute of Education, University College London.

Crawford, J. R. & Henry, J. D. (2004). The Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (PANAS): Construct Validity, Measurement Properties and Normative Data in a Large Non-Clinical Sample. British Journal of Clinical Psychology, 43, 245–265.

Crawford, T. N., Cohen, P., Johnson, J. G., Sneed, J. R., & Brook, J. S. (2004). The course and psychosocial correlates of personality disorder symptoms in adolescence: Erikson's developmental theory revisited. Journal of Youth and Adolescence, 33(5), 373-387.

Cremin, H., Thomas, G., & Vincett, K. (2005). Working with teaching assistants: three models evaluated. Research Papers in Education, 20(4), 413-432.

Crespo, C., Kielpikowski, M., Pryor, J. & Jose, P. E. (2011).Family Rituals in New Zealand Families: Links to Family Cohesion and Adolescents' Wellbeing. Journal of Family Psychology, 25(2), 184-193.

Creswell, J. (2004). Educational Research: Planning, Conducting, and Evaluating Quantitative and Qualitative Research. New York: Prentice Hall

Creswell, J. W., & Clark, V. L. P. (2004). Principles of qualitative research: Designing a qualitative study. Office of Qualitative & Mixed Methods Research, University of Nebraska, Lincoln.

Crivello, G., Camfield, L., & Woodhead, M. (2008). How Can Children Tell Us About Their Wellbeing? Exploring the Potential of Participatory Research Approaches within Young Lives. Social Indicators Research, 90(1), 51–72.

Croll, P. (1986). Systematic classroom observation. Lewes: Falmer Press

Croll, P. (2010) Educational participation post-16: a longitudinal analysis of intentions and outcomes. British Journal of Educational Studies, 57(4), 400-416.

Cruickshank, J. (2002). Critical realism and critical philosophy: On the Usefulness of philosophical problems. Journal of Critical Realism, 1(1), 49-66.

Cruickshank, J. (2004). A tale of two ontologies: an immanent critique of critical realism. The Sociological Review, 52(4), 567-585.

Cummins, R. A. (2005). The Domains of Life Satisfaction: An Attempt to Order Chaos. Citation Classics from Social Indicators Research; Social Indicators Research Series, 26, 559-584.

Cummins, R., Eckersley, R., Okerstrom, E., Lo, S. K., Davern, M., Hunter, B., & Woerner, J. (2004, January). The Australian unity wellbeing index: 2004 update. In 6th Australian Conference on Quality of Life, The Australian Centre on Quality of Life. Deakin University.

Dagnan, D., & Sandhu, S. (1999). Social comparison, self‐esteem and depression in people with intellectual disability. Journal of Intellectual Disability Research, 43(5), 372-379.

Dale, M. & Taylor, B. (2001). How Adult Learners makes sense of their dyslexia. Disability and Society, 16(7), 997-1008.

Davies, B. (2011). Bullies as Guardians of the Moral Order or an Ethic of Truths?. Children & Society, 25(4), 278-286.

Davies, B., & Laws, C. (2011). Poststructuralism at work with marginalised children. Bentham Science Publishers.

Davis, R. D., & Braun, E. M. (2010). The Gift of Dyslexia, Revised and Expanded: Why Some of the Smartest People Can't Read... and How They Can Learn. New York: Perigee.

Day, C., Sammons, P., Hopkins, D., Leithwood, K., & Kington, A. (2008). Research into the impact of school leadership on pupil outcomes: policy and research contexts. School Leadership and Management, 28(1), 5-25.

De Botton, A. (2013). The consolations of philosophy. UK: Vintage.

de Castelnau, P., Albaret, J. M., Chaix, Y., & Zanone, P. G. (2008). A study of EEG coherence in DCD children during motor synchronization task. Human Movement Science, 27(2), 230-241.

De Fraja, G., Oliveira, T., & Zanchi, L. (2010). Must try harder: Evaluating the role of effort in educational attainment. The Review of Economics and Statistics, 92(3), 577-597.

Deacon, R. (2006). From confinement to attachment: Michel Foucault on the rise of the school. European Legacy, 11(2), 121-138.

Deconinck, F. J., Spitaels, L., Fias, W., & Lenoir, M. (2009). Is developmental coordination disorder a motor imagery deficit? Journal of clinical and experimental neuropsychology, 31(6), 720–30

Deemer, S. (2004). Classroom goal orientation in high school classrooms: Revealing links between teacher beliefs and classroom environments. Educational research, 46(1), 73-90.

Desjardins, R. (2008). Researching the links between education and well‐being. European journal of education, 43(1), 23-35.

Denzin, N. K. (1983). Interpretive interactionism. In Gareth Morgan (Ed.), Beyond method: Strategies for social research. Beverly Hills: Sage.

Denzin, N. K. (1986). Interpretive biography. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Department for Children, Schools and Families (2008). The National Strategies: Inclusion Development Programme. Nottingham: DCSF Publications

Department for Education and Skills (DfES). (2001). Special educational needs code of practice. London: DfES

Department for Education and Skills (DfES). (2003). Every child matters: Summary. London: DFES

Department for Education. (2005). 14-19 Education and Skills White Paper. Retrieved March 22, 2011 Available online: http://www.education.gov.uk/publications/standard/publicationdetail/page1/Cm%206476

DePoy, E., & Gilmer, D. (2000). Adolescents with disabilities and chronic illness in transition: A community action needs assessment. Disability Studies Quarterly, 20, 24-35Desroches, A. S., Joanisse, M. F. & Robertson, E. K. (2005). Specific phonological impairments in dyslexia revealed by eyetracking. Cognition, 100, B32-B42

Dettmer, P., Thurston, L., & Dyck, N. (2005). Consultation, collaboration and teamwork for students with special needs (7th ed.). Needham Heights, MA: Allyn & Bacon

Devecchi, C., Dettori, F., Doveston, M., Sedgwick, P., & Jament, J. (2012). Inclusive classrooms in Italy and England: the role of support teachers and teaching assistants. European Journal of Special Needs Education, 27(2), 171-184.

Dewey, D. (1995). What is Developmental Dyspraxia. Brain and Cognition, 29, 254-274.

De Lisle, J. (2011). The benefits and challenges of mixing methods and methodologies: Lessons learnt from implementing qualitatively led mixed methods research designs in Trinidad and Tobago.

DfES (2013). Healthy Schools. Department for Education. Retrieved January 6th, 2014, Available online:http://www.education.gov.uk/schools/pupilsupport/pastoralcare/a0075278/healthy-schools

Di Martino, P., & Zan, R. (2009). 'Me and maths': towards a definition of attitude grounded on students' narratives. Journal of Mathematics Teacher Education, 13(1), 27-48.

Di Martino, P., & Zan, R. (2011). Attitude towards mathematics: A bridge between beliefs and emotions. Zdm, 43(4), 471-482.

Diener E. (1984). Subjective well-being. Psychology Bulletin, 95, 542–75.

Diener, E. & Chan, M. Y. (2011). Happy People Live Longer: Subjective Well-Being Contributes to Health and Longevity. Applied Psychology: Health And Well-Being3 (1), 1–43.

Diener, E., Emmons, R. A., Larson, R. J. & Griffin, S. (1985). The Satisfaction with Life Scale. Journal of personality Assessment, 49,1.

Dika, S. L., & Singh, K. (2002). Applications of social capital in educational literature: A critical synthesis. Review of educational research, 72(1), 31-60.

Dixon, G. M. (2003). Dyspraxia/DCD–The Child's Perspective. The Dyspraxia Foundation Professional Journal, 2.

Dobbelsteen, S., Levin, J., & Oosterbeek, H. (2002). The causal effect of class size on scholastic achievement: distinguishing the pure class size effect from the effect of changes in class composition. Oxford Bulletin of Economics and statistics, 64(1), 17-38.

Docherty, S. & Sandelowski, M. (1999). Focus on Qualitative Methods: Interviewing Children. Research in Nursing & Health, 22, 177–185.

Dodge, R., Daly, A. P., Huyton, J., & Sanders, L. D. (2012). The challenge of defining wellbeing. International journal of wellbeing, 2(3).

Dolan, P. & Metcalfe, R. (2012). Measuring Subjective Wellbeing: Recommendations on Measures for use by National Governments. Journal of Social Policy, 41, 2, 409–427.

Dolan, P., & White, M. P. (2007). How can measures of subjective well-being be used to inform public policy?. Perspectives on psychological science, 2(1), 71-85.

Doll, B. (2013). Enhancing resilience in classrooms. In S. Goldstein and R.B. Brooks (Eds.), Handbook of resiliency in children. Dordrecht:Springer.

Doyle, W. (2006). Ecological approaches to classroom management. In C.M. Evertson & C.S. Weinstein (Eds.), Handbook of classroom management: Research, practice, and contemporary issues (pp. 97–126). Mahwah: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates. Drew, S., & Atter, E. A. (2008). Can't Play Won't Play: Simply Sizzling Ideas to Get the Ball Rolling for Children with Dyspraxia. London:Jessica Kingsley Publishers.

Dupper, D. R. (2013). School bullying: New perspectives on a growing problem. Oxford University Press.

Duranovic, M., Dedeic, M., Huseinbasic, D., & Tinjic, E. (2011). Teachers' attitudes about dyslexia: Evidence from Bosnia, Herzegovina and Montenegro. Learning Disabilities at School: Research and Education, September 2011, Locarno, Switzerland, Department Formation and Learning

Dyslexia Scotland (2014). Statistics: Briefing Paper 1. Retrieved 12 June 2015, Available online: https://www.dyslexiascotland.org.uk/sites/default/files/page_content/Dyslexia%20identification%20vs%20SQA%20referrals.pdf

Dyson, A. (1999). Inclusion and inclusions: theories and discourses in inclusive education. World yearbook of education 1999: Inclusive education, 36-51.

Dzuka, J. & Dalbert, C. (2006). The Belief in a Just World's Impact on Subjective Well-being in Old Age. Aging and Mental Health, 10, 439-444.

Eagleton, T. (2014). 5 Selected Texts. Ideology. London: Routledge

Eaker, D. G., & Walters, L. H. (2002). Adolescent satisfaction in family rituals and psychosocial development: A developmental systems theory perspective. Journal of Family Psychology, 16, 406 – 414

Ecalle, J., Magnan, A., & Gibert, F. (2006). Class size effects on literacy skills and literacy interest in first grade: A large-scale investigation. Journal of school psychology, 44(3), 191-209.

Eccles, J. S., & Roeser, R. W. (2011). Schools as developmental contexts during adolescence. Journal of research on adolescence, 21(1), 225-241.

Eden, G. F., & Moats, L. (2002). The role of neuroscience in the remediation of students with dyslexia. Nature Neuroscience, 5, 1080-1084.

Edmonds, C. (2012). 'Diff‐ability' not 'disability': right‐brained thinkers in a left‐brained education system. Support for Learning, 27(3), 129-135.Education Scotland (2008) Excellence Group - Health and wellbeing across learning. Retrieved January 6th, 2013, Available online: http://www.educationscotland.gov.uk/learningteachingandassessment/learningacrossthecurriculum/responsibilityofall/healthandwellbeing/index.asp

Edwards, J. (1995). The scars of dyslexia. Educational Psychology in Practice, 11(2), 55.

Edwards, R. (1997). Changing Places?: Flexibility, Lifelong Learning, and a Learning Society. New York: Routledge

Edwards, S. (2010). The SENCO Survival Guide: The Nuts and Bolts of Everything You Need to Know. New York: Routledge.

Eid, M. & Larson, R. J. (2008). The Science of Subjective Well-being. New York: Guildford Press

Eide, B. L. & Eide, F. F. (2011). The Dyslexic Advantage: Unlocking the Hidden Potential of the Dyslexic Brain. London: Penguin Books

Eisenhart, M., & Towne, L. (2003). Contestation and change in national policy on “scientifically based” education research. Educational Researcher, 32(7), 31-38

Eligson, S. T. & Traustadottir, R. (2009). Assistance to pupils with physical disabilities in regular schools: promoting inclusion or creating dependency?. European Journal of Special Needs Education, 24(1), 21-36.

Elledge, L. C., Elledge, A. R., Newgent, R. A., & Cavell, T. A. (2016). Social risk and peer victimization in elementary school children: the protective role of teacher-student relationships. Journal of abnormal child psychology, 44(4), 691-703.

Elliott, J. G. & Gibbs, S. (2008). Does Dyslexia Exist?. Journal of Philosophy of Education, 42(3-4), 475-491.

Elliott, J. G., & Grigorenko, E. L. (2014). The dyslexia debate (No. 14). UK: Cambridge University Press.

Elliott, J., & Nicolson, R. (2016). Dyslexia: Developing the Debate. London: Bloomsbury Publishing.

Elliott, R., & Timulak, L. (2005). Descriptive and interpretive approaches to qualitative research. In J. Miles & P. Gilbert (Eds), A handbook of research methods for clinical and health psychology. UK: Oxford University Press

Ereaut, G. & Whiting, R. (2008). What do we mean by wellbeing, and why does it matter?.UK Government: Department of Schools and Famililies

European Agency for Development in Special Needs Education. (2010). Teacher education for inclusion - International literature review. Odense, Denmark: EADSNE. Retrieved January 6th, 2013, Available online: https://www.european-agency.org/sites/default/files/TE4I-Literature-Review.pdf

European Commission (2010). Communicating research for evidence-based policymaking. Luxembourg: Publications Office of the European Union

Evans, K. R. (2011). Suspended students’ experiences with in-school suspension: A phenomenological investigation (Doctoral thesis). University of Tennessee, Tennessee, USA

Evans, M., Shedden, J., Hevenor, S. & Hahn, M. (2000). The effect of variability of unattended information on global and local processing: evidence for lateralization at early stages of processing. Neuropsychologia, 38, 225–39.

Evans, W. (2014a). “If they can't tell the difference between duphalac and digoxin you've got patient safety issues “. Nurse Lecturers' constructions of students' dyslexic identities in nurse education. Nurse education today, 34(6), e41-e46.

Evans, W. (2014b). ‘I am not a dyslexic person I'm a person with dyslexia’: identity constructions of dyslexia among students in nurse education. Journal of advanced nursing, 70(2), 360-372.

Evans-Lacko, S., Takizawa, R., Brimblecombe, N., King, D., Knapp, M., Maughan, B., & Arseneault, L. (2017). Childhood bullying victimization is associated with use of mental health services over five decades: a longitudinal nationally representative cohort study. Psychological medicine, 47(1), 127-135.

Exley, S. (2003). The effectiveness of teaching strategies for students with dyslexia based on their preferred learning styles. British Journal of Special Education, 30(4), 213-220.

Facoetti, A., & Molteni, M. (2001). The gradient of visual attention in developmental dyslexia. Neuropsychologia, 39, 352–357.

Families Australia (2006). Family wellbeing in Australia: A families Australia vision. Retrieved January 6th, 2013, Available online: http://familiesaustralia.org.au/publications/pubs/policy-familywellbeing.pdf

Farchaus Stein, K. (1996). The Self-Schema Model: A Theoretical Approach to the Self-Concept in Eating Disorders. Archives of Psychiatric Nursing, X(2), 96-109.

Faria, L. (1996). Marsh's self-description questionnaire III (SDQ III): Adaptation study with portuguese college students. Social Behavior and Personality: an international journal, 24(4), 343-349.

Farrar, L. (2014). Focus on Specific Learning Difficulties. Whittington, UK: CReSTeD

Farrell, P., Ainscow, M., Howes, A., Frankham, J., Fox, S., & Davis, P. (2004). Inclusive education for all: Dream or reality. Journal of International Special Needs Education, 7(7), 1-11

Farrell, P., Balshaw, M. & Polat, F. (1999) The management, role and training of learning support assistants. London, Department of Education and Employment.

Farrington, D. P. (2005). Childhood origins of antisocial behavior. Clinical Psychology & Psychotherapy, 12(3), 177-190.

Farquhar, S. (2012). Wellbeing and narrative identity. Early Childhood Folio, 16(1), 27.

Fattore, T., Mason, J., & Watson, E. (2007). Children’s conceptualisation (s) of their well-being. Social indicators research, 80(1), 5-29.

Fattore, T., Mason, J., & Watson, E. (2009). When children are asked about their well-being: Towards a framework for guiding policy. Child Indicators Research, 2(1), 57-77.

Feigenson, L., Libertus, M. E. & Halberda, J. (2013). Links Between the Intuitive Sense of Number and Formal Mathematics Ability. Child Development Perspectives, 0(0), 1-6

Ferguson, K. E. (2008). Theorizing Dyslexia with Connolly and Haraway. In D. Campbell and M. Schoolman (Eds), The New Pluralism: Williams Connolly and the Contemporary Global Condition. Boston: Yale University Press

Ferguson, K. M. (2006). Social capital and children's wellbeing: a critical synthesis of the international social capital literature. International Journal of Social Welfare, 15, 2–18

Fernandes, L., Mendes, A., & Teixeira, A. A. (2012). A review essay on the measurement of child well-being. Social Indicators Research, 106(2), 239-257.

Ferrari, J. R., & Olivette, M. J. (1993). Perceptions of parental control and the development of indecision among late adolescent females. Adolescence, 28(112), 963.

Ferri, B. A. (2012). Undermining inclusion? A critical reading of response to intervention (RTI). International Journal of Inclusive Education, 16(8), 863-880

Festinger, L. (1954). A theory of social comparison processes. Human relations, 7(2), 117-140.

Field, J. (2009). Well-being and Happiness, Inquiry into the field for lifelong learning, Milton Keynes: National Institute of Adult Continuing Education

Fine, M., Torre, M.E., Burns, A., and Payne, Y. (forthcoming). Youth research/participatory methods for reform. In D. Thiessen & Cook-Sather, A. (Eds.), International handbook of student experience in elementary and secondary school. The Netherlands: Springer Publishers Finlay, L. (2012). Debating phenomenological methods. Hermeneutic phenomenology in education, 17-37.

Firestone W. A. (1993). Alternative Arguments for Generalizing from Data as Applied to Qualitative Research. Educational Researcher, 22(4), 16-23.

Firth, N., Frydenberg, E., Steeg, C., & Bond, L. (2013). Coping successfully with dyslexia: An initial study of an inclusive school‐based resilience programme. Dyslexia, 19(2), 113-130.

Fischer, K. W. & Lang, Z. (1999). The Development of Dynamic Skill Theory. In R. Lickliter & D. Lewkowicz (Eds.), Conceptions of development : Lessons from the laboratory Hove, U.K.: Psychology Press

Fischer, K. W. (2008). Dynamic cycles of cognitive and brain development: Measuring growth in mind, brain, and education. In A. M. Battro, K. W. Fischer, & P. J. Lena (Eds.), The educated brain (pp. 127-150). Cambridge, UK: Pontifical Academy of Science and the Cambridge University Press

Fischer, K. W. (2009). Mind, Brain, and Education: Building a Scientific Groundwork for Learning and Teaching. Mind, Brain and Education, 3(1)

Fischer, K. W., Bernstein, J. H., & Immordino-Yang, M. H. (2007). Mind, brain and education in reading disorders (Vol. 11). UK: Cambridge University Press.

Fischer, K. W., Goswami, U., & Geake, J. (2010). The future of educational neuroscience. Mind, Brain, and Education, 4(2), 68-80.

Fischer, S. E. & DeFries, J. C. (2002). Developmental Dyslexia: Genetic Dissection of a Complex Cognitive Trait. Nature Reviews: Neuroscience, 3, 767-779

Fisher, R., & Myhill, D. (2011). Teacher Interaction in the Teaching of Writing. In UKLA 47th International Conference, University of Chester - Empowerment through literacy: Literacy shaping futures

Fitch, E. F. (2002). Disability and inclusion: From labelling deviance to social valuing. Educational theory, 52(4), 463-477.

Fitzpatrick, J. (2016). Negotiating the Curriculum: An Integrated Approach Supporting Meaningful Learning through Learner and Professional Agency (Doctoral thesis). University of Limerick, Limerick, Republic of Ireland.

Florian, L. (2008). Inclusion: special or inclusive education: future trends. British Journal of Special Education, 35(4), 202-208

Florian, L. (2014). What counts as evidence of inclusive education?. European Journal of Special Needs Education, 29(3), 286-294.

Florian, L., & Black-Hawkins, K. (2010). Exploring inclusive pedagogy. British Educational Research Journal, 37(5), 813-828

Florian, L., Black-Hawkins, K., & Rouse, M. (2016). Achievement and inclusion in schools. London: Routledge.

Florian, L., & Hegarty, J. (2004). ICT and Special Educational Needs: a tool for inclusion. UK: McGraw-Hill Education.

Florian, L., & Linklater, H. (2009). Enhancing teaching and learning: towards a curriculum of teacher education for inclusive education. Paper presented at the meeting of the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, Chicago

Florian, L., & Linklater, H. (2010). Preparing teachers for inclusive education: using inclusive pedagogy to enhance teaching and learning for all. UK: Cambridge Journal of Education, 40(4), 369-386

Florian, L., & Spratt, J. (2013). Enacting inclusion: A framework for interrogating inclusive practice. European Journal of Special Needs Education, 28(2), 119-135.

Fong, S. S. M., Tsang, W. W. N., & Ng, G. Y. F. (2012). Taekwondo training improves sensory organization and balance control in children with developmental coordination

disorder: a randomized controlled trial. Research in developmental disabilities, 33(1), 85–95

Forgeard, M. J., Jayawickreme, E., Kern, M. L., & Seligman, M. E. (2011). Doing the right thing: Measuring wellbeing for public policy. International Journal of Wellbeing, 1(1).

Forjaz, M. J., Prieto-Flores, M. E., Ayala, A., Rodriguez-Blazquez, C., Fernandez-Mayoralas, G., Rojo-Perez, F., & Martinez-Martin, P. (2011). Measurement properties of the Community Wellbeing Index in older adults. Quality of Life Research, 20(5), 733-743.

Forlin, C. (2012). Diversity and it's challenges for teachers. In C. Forlin, Future Directions for Inclusive Teacher Education: An International Perspective. New York: Routledge

Foster, P. (1996). Observing Schools: a methodological guide. London: Paul Chapman

Fox, G. (2012). A handbook for special needs assistants: working in partnership with teachers. London: Routledge.

Fox, K. R. (1997) The physical self: From motivation to well-being. Champaign, IL, US: Human Kinetics

Frame, L. (2001). CalWORKS and Child Welfare: Case Management for Public Child Welfare Workers. Berkeley, CA: Child Welfare Research Center

Francis-Williams, J. (2014). Children with specific learning difficulties: The effect of neurodevelopmental learning disorders on children of normal intelligence. Oxford: Pergamon Press.

Fraser, B. J. (2012). Classroom environment (Vol. 234). London: Routledge.

Freeman, S. F., & Alkin, M. C. (2000). Academic and social attainments of children with mental retardation in general education and special education settings. Remedial and Special Education, 21(1), 3-26

Friend, M., & Bursuck, W. D. (2002). Including students with special needs: A practical guide for classroom teachers. Boston, MA: Allyn & Bacon.

Frosh, S. (2003). Psychosocial studies and psychology: is a critical approach emerging?. Human Relations, 56, 1547-67

Fuchs, W. W. (2010). Examining Teachers' Perceived Barriers Associated with Inclusion. SRATE journal, 19(1), 30-35.

Furlong, V. J. (1991). Disaffected pupils: reconstructing the sociological perspective. British Journal of Sociology of Education, 12(3), 293-307.

Gabel, S. (2002). Some Conceptual Problems with Critical Pedagogy. Curriculum Inquiry, 32 (2), 177-201

Gabrieli, J. D. E. (2009). Dyslexia: a new synergy between education and cognitive neuroscience. Science, 325(5938), 280–3

Gans, A. M., Kenny, M. C., & Ghany, D. L. (2003). Comparing the self-concept of students with and without learning disabilities. Journal of learning disabilities, 36(3), 287-295.

Garza, Y., & Bratton, S. C. (2005). School-based child-centered play therapy with Hispanic children: Outcomes and cultural considerations. International Journal of Play Therapy, 14, 51–79

Gasbarra, P. & Johnson, J. (2008). Out before the game begins: Hispanic leaders talk about what's needed to bring more Hispanic youngsters into science, technology and math professions . NY: Public Agenda

Gasparini, A. A., & Culén, A. L. (2012). Tablet PCs–An Assistive Technology for Students with Reading Difficulties?. In ACHI 2012, The Fifth International Conference on Advances in Computer-Human Interactions, 28-34.

Gatt, J. M., Korgaonkar, M. S., Schofield, P. R., Harris, A., Clark, C. R., Oakley, K. L., Ram, K., Michaelson, H., Yap, S., Stanners, M., Wise, V. & Williams, L. M. (2012). The TWIN-E project in emotional wellbeing: study protocol and preliminary heritability results across four MRI and DTI measures. Twin research and human genetics, 15(3), 419-441.

Giacobbi, P. R., Stancil, M., Hardin, B., & Bryant, L. (2008). Physical activity and quality of life experienced by highly active individuals with physical disabilities. Adapted physical activity quarterly, 25(3), 189-207.

Giangreco, M. F. (2010). Utilization of teacher assistants in inclusive schools: is it the kind of help that helping is all about? European Journal of Special Needs Education, 25(4), 341-345.

Giangreco, M. F., & Doyle, M. B. (2007). Teacher assistants in inclusive schools. The SAGE handbook of special education, 429-439.

Gibb, K., Tunbridge, D., Chua, A., & Frederickson, N. (2007). Pathways to inclusion: Moving from special school to mainstream. Educational Psychology in Practice, 23(2), 109-127.

Gibbs, J., Appleton, J. & Appleton, R. (2007). Dyspraxia or developmental coordination disorder? Unravelling the enigma. Archive of Disabled Children, 92, 534–539

Gibson, S., & Kendall, L. (2010). Stories from school: Dyslexia and learners' voices on factors impacting on achievement. Support for learning, 25(4), 187-193.

Gibson, S., Black, A. E., Baskerville, D. J., Norris, K. & Berry, A. B. (2015). Methodological Interruptions of a diverse kind; shifting roles and crossing borders.

Giddens, A. (1991). Modernity and self-identity: Self and society in the late modern age. Stanford university press.

Gilbert, I. (2011). Why do I need a teacher when I've got google. Abingdon: Routledge.

Gilbert, I. G. I. (2016). Don't send him in tomorrow: Shining a light on the marginalised, disenfranchised and forgotten children of today's schools. Carmarthen, UK: Crown House Publishing

Gillett-Swan, J. K. (2017). 'You Can't Have Well-being If You're Dead… or Can You?'. Children's Realistic and Logical Approach to Discussing Life, Death and Wellbeing. Children & Society, 31(6), 497-509.

Gillingham, A., & Stillman, B. W. (1997). The Gillingham manual, 8th edition. Cambridge, MA: Educators Publishing Service

Gillum, J. (2012). Dyscalculia: issues for practice in educational psychology. Educational psychology in practice, 28(3), 287-297.

Gilman, R. & Huebner, S. (2003). A review of life satisfaction research with children and adolescents. School Psychology Quarterly, 18(2), 192.

Gini, G. (2006). Bullying as a social process: The role of group membership in students' perception of inter-group aggression at school. Journal of school psychology, 44(1), 51-65.

Giroux, H. (2010). Lessons from Paulo Freire. Chronicle of Higher Education, 57(9), B15-B16. Glazzard, J. (2010). The impact of dyslexia on pupils' self-esteem. Support for Learning, 25(2), 63–69

Glazzard, J. (2012). Dyslexia and self-esteem: stories of resilience. In T. N. Wydell & L. Fern-Pollack, Dyslexia-A Comprehensive and International Approach. Croatia: InTech.

Glazzard, J., & Dale, K. (2013). Trainee teachers with dyslexia: personal narratives of resilience. Journal of Research in Special Educational Needs, 13(1), 26-37.

Goldman, A. I. (1967). A causal theory of knowing. The journal of Philosophy, 64(12), 357-372.

Gold, E., Smith, A., Hopper, I., Herne, D., Tansey, G., & Hulland, C. (2010). Mindfulness-based stress reduction (MBSR) for primary school teachers. Journal of Child and Family Studies, 19, 184–189.

Good School Guide (2015). When is it best to go specialist for SpLD? Retrieved January 6th, 2016, Available online: https://www.goodschoolsguide.co.uk/special-educational-needs/schools/specific-learning-difficulties

Goodley, D. (2008). For Inclusion: Towards a critical pedagogy with marginalised learners. Retrieved January 6th, 2013, Available online: http://www.leeds.ac.uk/disability-studies/archiveuk/goodley/inclusive%20pedagogy.pdf

Göransson, K., & Nilholm, C. (2014). Conceptual diversities and empirical shortcomings–a critical analysis of research on inclusive education. European Journal of Special Needs Education, 29(3), 265-280.

Gore, H. (2016). 'Working together... it doesn't go far enough actually for what the relationship becomes'-An IPA study exploring the experiences of primary school SENCOs working with parents/carers through the EHCP process (Doctoral thesis). Tavistock and Portman NHS Foundation Trust/University of Essex, Essex, UK.

Gorman, D. (2010). Maslow's hierarchy and social and emotional wellbeing. Aboriginal and Islander Health Worker Journal, 34(1), 27.

Goswami, U. (2008a). Foresight Mental Capital and Wellbeing Project. Learning difficulties: Future challenges. London: The Government Office for Science

Goswami, U. (2008b). Learning Difficulties: Future Challenges, Mental Capital and Wellbeing Project. London: UK Government Office for Science

Gough, I. (2004). Human well-being and social structures: relating the universal and the local. Global social policy, 4(3), 289-311.

Gove, M. (2007) Michael Gove backs Return to Traditional Teaching Methods. Conservative Home. Retrieved January 6th, 2013, Available online: http://conservativehome.blogs.com/torydiary/2007/10/gove-backs-retu.html Gove M. (2012). Education for economic success. Speech to the Education World Forum. Retrieved January 6th, 2014, Available online: www.gov.uk/government/speeches/michael-gove-to-the-education-world-forum

Gove, M. (2013a) Michael Gove MP: Be angry on behalf of those failed by the education system – if we aren't, who will be? Conservative Home. Retrieved January 6th, 2014, Available online: http://www.conservativehome.com//platform/2013/09/most-of-the-time-i-dont-think-about-being-adopted-any-more-than-i-think-about-the-colour-of-my-eyes-or-the-size-of-my.html

Gove, M. (2013b) Michael Gove MP: Why traditional education is a work of social justice – one that I'm striving to deliver. Retrieved January 6th, 2015, Available online: http://www.conservativehome.com/platform/2013/09/michael-gove-mp-2.html

Graham, A., Phelps, R., Maddison, C., & Fitzgerald, R. (2011). Supporting children's mental health in schools: teacher views. Teachers and Teaching, 17(4), 479-496.

Graham, L. J. & Slee, R. (2006). Inclusion?. In Proceedings Disability Studies in Education Special Interest Group, American Educational Research Association (AERA) 2006 Annual Conference, San Francisco

Graham, L. J., & Slee, R. (2008). An illusory interiority: Interrogating the discourse/s of inclusion. Educational Philosophy and Theory, 40(2), 277-293.

Graham, S. L. (2009). Does dyslexia affect self-esteem, self-concept and satisfaction with life in university students? (Masters thesis). University of Edinburgh, Edinburgh, Scotland

Green, J. (2008). Risk and the construction of social identity: children's talk about accidents. Sociology of Health & Illness, 19(4), 457–479

Green, S., & Reid, G. (2016). 100 Ideas for Primary Teachers: Supporting Children with Dyslexia. UK: Bloomsbury Publishing.

Greenberg, M. T., Weissberg, R. P., O'brien, M. U., Zins, J. E., Fredericks, L., Resnik, H., & Elias, M. J. (2003). Enhancing school-based prevention and youth development through coordinated social, emotional, and academic learning. American psychologist, 58(6-7), 466.

Griffiths, C. B., Norwich, B., & Burden, B. (2004). Parental agency, identity and knowledge: mothers of children with dyslexia. Oxford Review of Education, 30(3), 417-433.

Griffiths, Y., & Stuart, M. (2013). Reviewing evidence‐based practice for pupils with dyslexia and literacy difficulties. Journal of Research in Reading, 36(1), 96-116.

Grimes, S. (2009). Living with Dyslexia: Olivia's Life History. A Research Project into the Effects of Living with Dyslexia on the Life Course. The Oral History Association of Australia Journal, (31), 44.

Gross, J. (2015). Beating Bureaucracy in Special Educational Needs: Helping Sencos Maintain a Work/life Balance. London: Routledge.

Guerin, F., Marsh, H. W., & Famose, J. P. (2003). Construct validation of the Self-Description Questionnaire II with a French sample. European Journal of Psychological Assessment, 19, 142–150

Guimond, S., Chatard, A., Martinot, D., Crisp, R. J. & Redersdorff, S. (2006). Social comparison, self-stereotyping, and gender differences in self-construals. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 90 (2), 221–242

Guskey, T. R. (2003). What makes professional development effective?. Phi delta kappan, 84(10), 748-750.

Gwernan-Jones, R., & Burden, R. L. (2010). Are they just lazy? Student teachers' attitudes about dyslexia. Dyslexia, 16(1), 66-86.

Haddad, Samir. (2014) 'Derrida and Education'. In Z. Direk and L. Lawlor (Eds.), A Companion to Derrida. Malden, MA: Wiley-BlackwellHall, A. (2008). Specific learning difficulties. Psychiatry, 7(6), 260–265

Hall, W. (2017). The effectiveness of policy interventions for school bullying: A systematic review. Journal of the Society for Social Work and Research, 8(1), 45-69.

Hallam, S. (2009). An evaluation of the Social and Emotional Aspects of Learning (SEAL) programme: promoting positive behaviour, effective learning and well‐being in primary school children. Oxford Review of Education, 35(3), 313-330.

Hallam, S., Price, J., & Katsarou, G. (2002). The effects of background music on primary school pupils' task performance. Educational studies, 28(2), 111-122.

Hamachek, D. E. (1988). Evaluating Self‐Concept and Ego Development Within Erikson's Psychosocial Framework: A Formulation. Journal of Counseling & Development, 66(8), 354-360.

Hamarus, P., & Kaikkonen, P. (2008). School bullying as a creator of pupil peer pressure. Educational research, 50(4), 333-345.

Hamilton, L., & Brown, J. (2005). 'Judgement day is coming!': young people and the examination process in Scotland. Improving Schools, 8(1), 47-57.

Hammersley, M. (2008). Troubles with triangulation. Advances in mixed methods research, 22-36.

Hanley, T., Winter, L. A. & Burrell, K. (2017). Supporting Emotional Wellbeing in Schools in the Context of Austerity. Manchester: University of Manchester

Hargreaves, A. (1994). Changing teachers, changing times: Teachers' work and culture in the postmodern age. New York: Teachers College Press.

Hargreaves, D. H., Hester, S., & Mellor, F. J. (2012). Deviance in classrooms. London: Routledge.

Hargreaves, E. (2005). Assessment for learning? Thinking outside the (black) box. Cambridge Journal of Education, 35(2), 213-224.

Harley, T. A. (2007). The Psychology of Language: From Data to Theory. Hove: Taylor and Francis

Harm, M. W., & Seidenberg, M. S. (2004). Computing the meanings of words in reading: cooperative division of labor between visual and phonological processes. Psychological review, 111(3), 662. Harter, S. (1990). Processes underlying adolescent self-concept

formation, In R. Montemayor G. R. Adams & T. P. Gullotta (Eds), Childhood to adolescence: A transitional period? Advances in adolescent development: An annual book series, Vol. 2.. Thousand Oaks, CA, US: Sage Publications

Hartley, R. (2010). Teacher Expertise for Special Educational Needs. Policy Exchange. Retrieved January 6th, 2013, Available online: https://www.policyexchange.org.uk/wp-content/uploads/2016/09/teacher-expertise-for-sen-jul-10.pdf

Hascher, T., & Hagenauer, G. (2010). Alienation from school. International Journal of Educational Research, 49(6), 220-232.

Hatcher, P. J., Hulme, C., Miles, J. N., Carroll, J. M., Hatcher, J., Gibbs, S., ... & Snowling, M. J. (2006). Efficacy of small group reading intervention for beginning readers with reading‐delay: a randomised controlled trial. Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry, 47(8), 820-827.

Hay, I., & Ashman, A. F. (2003). The development of adolescents' emotional stability and general self-concept: The interplay of parents, peers, and gender. International Journal of Disability. Development and Education, 50(1), 77-91.

Haybron, D. (2000). Two Philosophical Problems in the Study of Happiness. Journal of Happiness Studies, 1, 207–225

Haybron, D. (2007). On Being Happy or Unhappy. Philosophy and Phenomenological Research, 71(2), 287-317

Hayes, M. J. (2015). An Evaluation of the Impacts of the Social Communication Emotional Regulation and Transactional Support (SCERTS®) Model on Multidisciplinary Collaboration. International Journal for Cross-Disciplinary Subjects in Education (IJCDSE), Special Issue 5(1), 2411-2415

Hayward, V. (2009). Emotional health and wellbeing (EHWB): What's the problem? Paper presented at the British Educational Research Association Annual Conference, University of Manchester, 2-5

Hegarty, S. (1993). Reviewing the literature on integration. European Journal of Special Needs Education, 8(3), 194-200

Heilbronn, R. (2016). Freedoms and Perils: Academy Schools in England. Journal of Philosophy of Education, 50(3), 306-318.

Helliwell, J. F., & Putnam, R. D. (2004). The social context of well-being. Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences, 359(1449), 1435.

Henkel, M. (2005). Academic identity and autonomy in a changing policy environment. Higher education, 49(1), 155-176.

Henson, K. T., & Eller, B. F. (2012). Educational psychology. Dubuque, IA: Kendall Hunt.

Hilton, G. L. (2017). Disappearing Teachers: An Exploration of a Variety of Views as to the Causes of the Problems Affecting Teacher Recruitment and Retention in England. Current Business and Economics Driven Discourse and Education: Perspectives from Around the World - BCES Conference Books, 15(3), 79-85. Sofia: Bulgarian Comparative Education Society.

Ho, A. (2004). To be labelled, or not to be labelled: that is the question. British Journal of Learning Disabilities, 32(2), 86-92.

Hodge, N. (2016). Schools without labels. In K. Runswick-Cole, R. Mallett and S. Timimi (Eds.), Re-Thinking Autism: Diagnosis, Identity and Equality. Philaedelphia: Jessica Kingsley Publishers.

Hodkinson, A. (2006). Conceptions and Misconceptions of Inclusive Education—One Year on: A Critical Analysis of Newly Qualified Teachers' Knowledge and Understanding of Inclusion. Research in Education, 76(1), 43-55.

Hodkinson, A. (2009). Pre‐service teacher training and special educational needs in England 1970–2008: is government learning the lessons of the past or is it experiencing a groundhog day?. European Journal of Special Needs Education, 24(3), 277-289.

Hofer, M. (2007). Goal conflicts and self-regulation: A new look at pupils' off-task behaviour in the classroom. Educational Research Review, 2(1), 28-38.

Holopainen, L., Lappalainen, K., Junttila, N. & Savolainen, H. (2012). The Role of Social Competence in the Psychological Wellbeing of Adolescents in Secondary Education. Scandinavian Journal of Educational Research, 56(2), 199-212

Holzman, L. (2006). Lev Vygotsky and the new performative psychology: Implications for business and organizations. In D. M. Hosking and S. McName (Eds.), The social construction of organization. Oslo: Liber

Holzman, L. (2014). "Vygotskian-izing" Psychotherapy. Mind, Culture, and Activity, 21(3), 184-199.Ghaemi, S. N. (1999). Performative statements and the will: Mechanisms of psychotherapeutic change. American journal of psychotherapy, 53(4), 483.

Homel, R. & Burns, A. (1989). Environmental Quality and the Wellbeing of Children. Social Indicators Research, 21(2), 133-158

Hong, J. S., & Espelage, D. L. (2012). A review of research on bullying and peer victimization in school: An ecological system analysis. Aggression and violent behavior, 17(4), 311-322.

Hornstra, L., Denessen, E., Bakker, J., van den Bergh, L., & Voeten, M. (2010). Teacher attitudes toward dyslexia: Effects on teacher expectations and the academic achievement of students with dyslexia. Journal of learning disabilities, 43(6), 515-529.

Horton, P. (2011). School bullying and social and moral orders. Children & society, 25(4), 268-277.

Houghton, C., Casey, D., Shaw, D., & Murphy, K. (2013). Rigour in qualitative case-study research. Nurse researcher, 20(4).

Huber, S. G., & Muijs, D. (2010). School leadership effectiveness: The growing insight in the importance of school leadership for the quality and development of schools and their pupils. In S. G. Huber (Ed), School leadership - international perspectives. Amsterdam: Springer.

Hudson, C. (2007). Governing the governance of education: The state strikes back?. European Educational Research Journal, 6(3), 266-282.

Huebner, E. S., Valois, R. F., Paxton, R. J. & Drane, J. W. (2005). Middle school students' perceptions of quality of life. Journal of Happiness Studies, 6(1), 15-24

Huebner, S., Gilman, R., & Laughlin, J. (1999). A Multimethod Investigation of the multideminsionality of Children's Well-being Reports: Discriminant Validity of Life Satisfaction and Self Esteem. Social Indicators Research, 46, 1–22

Hughes, L. A., Banks, P., & Terras, M. M. (2013). Secondary school transition for children with special educational needs: a literature review. Support for Learning, 28(1), 24-34.

Hughes, K., Lowey, H., Quigg, Z., & Bellis, M. A. (2016). Relationships between adverse childhood experiences and adult mental well-being: results from an English national household survey. BMC public health, 16(1), 222.

Huguet, P., Dumas, F., Monteil, J.-M., & Genestoux, N. (2001). Social comparison choices in the classroom: Further evidence for students' upward comparison tendency and its beneficial impact on performance. European Journal of Social Psychology, 31, 557–578

Humphrey, N. (2003). Facilitating a positive sense of self in pupils with dyslexia: the role of teachers and peers. Support for Learning, 18(3), 130-136.

Humphrey, N. (2004). The death of the feel-good factor? Self-esteem in the educational context. School Psychology International, 25(3), 347-360.

Humphrey, N. and Mullins, P. M. (2002a). Personal Constructs and Attribution for Academic Success and Failure in Dyslexia. British Journal of Special Education, 29, 196–203

Humphrey, N., & Mullins, P. M. (2002b). Self‐concept and self‐esteem in developmental dyslexia. Journal of Research in Special Educational Needs, 2(2), 1-13

Humphrey, N., Lendrum, A., & Wigelsworth, M. (2010). Social and emotional aspects of learning (SEAL) programme in secondary schools: National evaluation. Research Report DFE-RR049. UK: Department for Education

Humphrey, N., Lendrum, A., Barlow, A., Wigelsworth, M., & Squires, G. (2013). Achievement for All: Improving psychosocial outcomes for students with special educational needs and disabilities. Research in developmental disabilities, 34(4), 1210-1225.

Huppert, F. A. (2009). Psychological Well-being: Evidence Regarding its Causes and Consequences. Applied Psychology: Health and Well-Being, 1 (2), 137–164

Huppert, F. A., & So, T. T. C. (2009). What percentage of people in Europe are flourishing and what characterises them. OECD/ISQOLS meeting "Measuring subjective well-being: an opportunity for NSOs, University of Cambridge, 1–7.

Huppert, F. A., Marks, N., Clark, A. E., Siegrist, J., Stutzer, A., Vittersø, J., & Wahrendorf, M. (2009). Not for Citation Measuring well-being across Europe: Description of the ESS Well-being Module and preliminary findings. Social Indicators Research, 91(3), 301–355

Husserl, E. (1970). The crisis of European sciences and transcendental phenomenology: An introduction to phenomenological philosophy. Illinois: Northwestern University Press.

Husserl, E. (1973). In I. Kern (ed), Zur Phänomenologie der intersubjektivität. The Hague: Martinus Nijhoff

Hwang, Y. S., & Evans, D. (2011). Attitudes towards inclusion: Gaps between belief and practice. International Journal of Special Education, 26(1), 136-146.

Ihde, D., & Zaner, R. M. (2013). Interdisciplinary phenomenology (Vol. 6). Amsterdam: Springer Science & Business Media.

Ijaiya, Y. (1999). Effects of Over-Crowded Classrooms on Teacher-Students Interactions. Ilorin Journal of Education, 19, 1-11.

Ingesson, S. G. (2007). Growing Up with Dyslexia: Interviews with Teenagers and Young Adults. School Psychology International, 28(5), 574–591

Ingvarson, L., & Rowe, K. (2008). Conceptualising and evaluating teacher quality: Substantive and methodological issues. Australian Journal of Education, 52(1), 5-35.

Ireson, J., & Hallam, S. (2005). Pupils' liking for school: Ability grouping, self‐concept and perceptions of teaching. British Journal of Educational Psychology, 75(2), 297-311.

Jalongo, M. R. (2005). “What are all these Dogs Doing at School?”: Using Therapy Dogs to Promote Children's Reading Practice. Childhood Education, 81(3), 152-158.

Jarman, M. (2008). Disability studies ethics: Theoretical approaches for the undergraduate classroom. Review of Disability Studies: An International Journal, 4(4).

Jeffries, S., & Everatt, J. (2004). Working memory: its role in dyslexia and other specific learning difficulties. Dyslexia, 10(3), 196–214

Jenkins, J. R., Hudson, R. F., & Johnson, E. S. (2007). Screening for at-risk readers in a response to intervention framework. School Psychology Review, 36(4), 582.

Jiménez, J. E., Rodríguez, C. & Ramírez, G. (2009). Spanish developmental dyslexia: Prevalence, cognitive profile, and home literacy experiences. Journal of Experimental Child Psychology, 103, 167–185

Jodrell, D. (2010). Social-Identity and Self-Efficacy Concern for Disability Labels. Psychology Teaching Review, 16(2), 111-121.

Johnson, M. (2004). Dyslexia friendly schools–policy and practice. Dyslexia in Context: Research, Policy and Practice, 237-256.

Johnston, J. (2008). Methods, Tools and Instruments for Use with Children, Young Lives Technical Note No. 11. Oxford: Oxford University Department of International Development

Jokisuu, E., Langdon, P., & Clarkson, P. (2011). Modelling cognitive impairment to improve universal access. International Conference on Universal Access in Human-Computer Interaction. Users Diversity, 42-50. Berlin: Springer

Jones, N., & Sumner, A. (2009). Does mixed methods research matter to understanding childhood well-being?. Social Indicators Research, 90(1), 33-50. Jónsson, Ó. P. (2012). Desert, liberalism and justice in democratic education. Education, Citizenship and Social Justice, 7(2), 103-115.

Jordan, A., Schwartz, E., & McGhie-Richmond, D. (2009). Preparing teachers for inclusive classrooms. Teaching and teacher education, 25(4), 535-542.

Jordan, J. A., McRorie, M., & Ewing, C. (2010). Gender differences in the role of emotional intelligence during the primary–secondary school transition. Emotional and Behavioural Difficulties, 15(1), 37-47.

Joshanloo, M., & Weijers, D. (2014). Aversion to happiness across cultures: A review of where and why people are averse to happiness. Journal of Happiness Studies, 15(3), 717-735.

Juan, S. C., & Hemenway, D. (2017). From depression to youth school gun carrying in America: Social connectedness may help break the link. Cogent social sciences, 3(1), 1314877.

Jull, S. K. (2008). Emotional and behavioural difficulties (EBD): The special educational need justifying exclusion. Journal of Research in Special Educational Needs, 8(1), 13-18.

Jung, W. S. (2007). Preservice teacher training for successful inclusion. Education, 128(1), 106-114.

Junttila, N., Vauras, M., & Laakkonen, E. (2007). The role of parenting self-efficacy in children's social and academic behavior. European Journal of Psychology of Education, 22(1), 41–61

Kagan, J. E. (2001). Understanding intergenerational dyslexia of a father and his daughter: A secondary conditions perspective (Doctoral thesis). Syracuse University, New York, USA

Kamala, R. (2014). Multisensory Approach to Reading Skills of Dyslexic Students. IOSR Journal Of Humanities and Social Science, 19(5), 2014.

Kaplan, A., & Maehr, M. L. (1999). Achievement goals and student well-being. Contemporary educational psychology, 24(4), 330-358.

Karande, S., Mahajan, V., & Kulkarni, M. (2009). Recollections of learning-disabled adolescents of their schooling experiences: A qualitative study. Indian journal of medical sciences, 63(9), 382-391. Karande, S., Sawant, S., Kulkarni, M., Galvankar, P., & Sholapurwala, R. (2005). Comparison of cognition abilities between groups of children with specific learning disability having average, bright normal and superior nonverbal intelligence. Indian journal of medical sciences, 59(3), 95.

Kärnä, A., Voeten, M., Poskiparta, E., & Salmivalli, C. (2010). Vulnerable children in varying classroom contexts: Bystanders' behaviors moderate the effects of risk factors on victimization. Merrill-Palmer Quarterly, 56(3), 261-282.

Katz, L. (2014). Teachers' reflections on critical pedagogy in the classroom. InterActions: UCLA Journal of Education and Information Studies, 10(2).

Kaufman, J. M., Ward, D. M., & Badar, J. (2015). The delusion of full inclusion. Controversial therapies for autism and intellectual disabilities. In R. M. Foxx and J. A. Mulick (Eds), Fad, Fashion and Science in Professional Practice. London: Routledge

Kaufman, L., Vogel, S. E., Starke, M., Kremser, C. & Schocke, M. (2009). Numerical and non-numerical ordinality processing in children with and without developmental dyscalculia: Evidence from fMRI. Cognitive Development, 24, 486–494

Kaur, A., & Padmanabhan, J. (2017). Children with Specific Learning Disorder: Identification and Interventions. Educational Quest, 8(1), 1.

Kavale, K. A. (2002). Mainstreaming to full inclusion: From orthogenesis to pathogenesis of an idea. International Journal of Disability. Development and Education, 49(2), 201-214.

Kearney, A. (2011). Exclusion from and Within School : Issues and Solutions. Rotterdam: Sense Publications

Kelly, K., & Phillips, S. (2016). Teaching literacy to learners with dyslexia: A multi-sensory approach. London: Sage.

Kelly, N., & Norwich, B. (2004). Pupils' perceptions of self and of labels: Moderate learning difficulties in mainstream and special schools. British Journal of Educational Psychology, 74, 411.

Kelly, S. J. (2015). The views of students with dyslexia on the transition to secondary school–The importance of self-advocacy (Doctoral thesis). University of East London, London, UK.

Kennedy, P. (2006). Journeys into literacy: the person-based barriers to progress. In N. Colleran (Ed), From the Inside Out: emerging perspectives in adult and further education in Ireland. Nenagh, Ireland: Tipperary Vocational Education Committee

Kennedy, W. L. & Cummins, R. (2007), Ethnic Identity and Subjective Wellbeing: Connections and Possibilities, International Journal of Diversity in Organisations. Communities and Nations, 7(1), 107-116

Kerns, T., 2013. Schopenhauer's Mitleid, Environmental Outrage and Human Rights. Oñati Socio-Legal Series, 3(5), 931-952Keyes, C. L. (2006a). Subjective well-being in mental health and human development research worldwide: An introduction. Social indicators research, 77(1), 1-10.

Keyes, C. L. M. (2006b). Mental health in adolescence: Is America's youth flourishing? The American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, 76, 395–402

Kiecolt-Glaser, J. K., & Glaser, R. (2002). Depression and immune function: central pathways to morbidity and mortality. Journal of psychosomatic research, 53(4), 873-876.

Kim, Y., Kee, Y., & Lee, S. J. (2015). An analysis of the relative importance of components in measuring community wellbeing: Perspectives of citizens, public officials, and experts. Social indicators research, 121(2), 345-369.

King, W. M., Giess, S. A., & Lombardino, L. J. (2007). Subtyping of children with developmental dyslexia via bootstrap aggregated clustering and the gap statistic: comparison with the double‐deficit hypothesis. International Journal of Language & Communication Disorders, 42(1), 77-95.

Kirby, A. (2004). Is dyspraxia a medical condition or a social disorder?. The British Journal of General Practice, 54(498), 6.

Kirikkaya, E. B., & Vurkaya, G. (2011). The Effect of Using Alternative Assessment Activities on Students' Success and Attitudes in Science and Technology Course. Educational Sciences: Theory and Practice, 11(2), 997-1004.

Kirk, J., & Reid, G. (2009). An examination of the relationship between dyslexia and offending in young people and the implications for the training system. Dyslexia, 7(2), 77–84

Kirkwood, T., Bond, J., May, C., Mckeith, I., & Teh, M. M. (2010). Mental capital and wellbeing through life: future challenges. Mental Capital and Wellbeing. Chichester, UK: Wiley-Blackwell

Kiziewicz, M. & Biggs, I. (2007). Creativity Across Science, Art, Dyslexia, Education, CASCADE. Bath: Bath University

Knoster, T. (1991). Factors in managing complex change. In Material presentation at TASH conference, Washington DC The Association for People with Severe Disabilities. Google Scholar.

Köbberling, A. (1998). Gemeinsamkeit und Vielfalt in der Sekundarstufe: Wege in verschiedene Lebenswelten teilen. In A. Hildeschmidt (Ed.), Integrationspädagogik: auf dem Weg zu einer Schule für alle. Juventa Weinheim, 257-276

Koshy, V., & Pinheiro‐Torres, C. (2013). ‘Are we being de‐gifted, Miss?’ Primary school gifted and talented co‐ordinators’ responses to the Gifted and Talented Education Policy in England. British Educational Research Journal, 39(6), 953-978.

Kozleski, E., A. Artiles, & F. Waitoller. (2011). Equity in Inclusive Education: Historical Trajectories and Theoretical Commitments. In A. Artiles, E. Kozleski and F. Waitoller, Inclusive education: Examining equity on five continents. Cambridge: Harvard Education Press.

Kraus, C., Ganger, S., Losak, J., Hahn, A., Savli, M., Kranz, G. S., Baldinger, P., Windischberger, C., Kasper, S. & Lanzenberger, R. (2014). Gray matter and intrinsic network changes in the posterior cingulate cortex after selective serotonin reuptake inhibitor intake. Neuroimage, 84, 236-244.

Kugelmass, J. W. (2007). Constructivist views of learning: implications for inclusive education. In L. Florian, The Sage handbook of special education. London: Sage

Kyle, G., & Chick, G. (2007). The social construction of a sense of place. Leisure Sciences, 29(3), 209-225.

Lackaye, T., Margalit, M., Ziv, O. & Ziman, T. (2006). Comparisons of Self-Efficacy, Mood, Effort, and Hope Between Students with Learning Disabilities and Their Non-LD-Matched Peers, Learning Disabilities Research & Practice, 21(2), 111–121

Lamb, S., Roberts, I., & Mackinder, I. (2012). How do surplus places affect the resources available for expenditure on improving outcomes for pupils. Cardiff: Estyn

Lamb, T. & Simpson, M. (2003). Escaping from the treadmill: practitioner research and professional autonomy. Language Learning Journal, 28, 55-63

Lambe, J., & Bones, R. (2007). The effect of school‐based practice on student teachers' attitudes towards inclusive education in Northern Ireland. Journal of Education for Teaching, 33(1), 99-113.

Lambert, J., & Cuper, P. (2008). Multimedia technologies and familiar spaces: 21st-century teaching for 21st-century learners. Contemporary Issues in Technology and Teacher Education, 8(3), 264-276.

Landerl, K., Fussenegger, B., Moll, K. & Willburger, E. (2009). Dyslexia and dyscalculia: Two learning disorders with different cognitive profiles. Journal of Experimental Child Psychology, 103, 309–324

Landgarten, H. B. (2013). Family art psychotherapy: A clinical guide and casebook. London: Routledge.

Laneshawbridge School (2012). Curriculum. Retrieved January 6th, 2013, Available online: http://www.laneshawbridge.lancsngfl.ac.uk/index.php?category_id=35

Lashley, C. (2007). Principal leadership for special education: An ethical framework. Exceptionality, 15(3), 177-187.

Lawrence, D. (2006). Enhancing self-esteem in the classroom. Newbury Park, Calif: Pine Forge Press.

Lawson, H. A., Caringi, J., Pyles, L., Jurkowski, J., & Bozlak, C. (2015). Participatory Action Research. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Lawson, H., Parker, M., & Sikes, P. (2006). Seeking stories: Reflections on a narrative approach to researching understandings of inclusion. European Journal of Special Needs Education, 21(1), 55-68.

Leary, M. R., Kowalski, R. M., Smith, L., & Phillips, S. (2003). Teasing, rejection, and violence: Case studies of the school shootings. Aggressive behavior, 29(3), 202-214.

Leeds City Council (2017). School Wellbeing. Retrieved December 6th, 2017, Available online: http://www.schoolwellbeing.co.uk/

Lehane, T. (2017). “SEN’s completely different now”: critical discourse analysis of three “Codes of Practice for Special Educational Needs”(1994, 2001, 2015). Educational Review, 69(1), 51-67.

Leitão, S., Dzidic, P., Claessen, M., Gordon, J., Howard, K., Nayton, M., & Boyes, M. E. (2017). Exploring the impact of living with dyslexia: The perspectives of children and their parents. International Journal of Speech-Language Pathology, 19(3), 322-334.

Lempers, J. D., & Clark-Lempers, D. S. (1993). A functional comparison of same-sex and opposite-sex friendships during adolescence. Journal of Adolescent Research, 8(1), 89-108.

Lent, R. W., Singley, D., Sheu, H. B., Gainor, K. A., Brenner, B. R., Treistman, D., & Ades, L. (2005). Social cognitive predictors of domain and life satisfaction: Exploring the theoretical precursors of subjective well-being. Journal of counseling psychology, 52(3), 429.

Leonova, T. (2012). Depression in Dyslexic Children Attending Specialized Schools: A Case of Switzerland. In T. Wydell (Ed), Dyslexia - A Comprehensive and International Approach. Croatia: InTech

Leung, C., & Rea-Dickins, P. (2007). Teacher assessment as policy instrument: Contradictions and capacities. Language Assessment Quarterly, 4(1), 6-36.

Leung, K. C., Marsh, H. W., Craven, R. G., & Abduljabbar, A. S. (2015). Measurement invariance of the Self-description Questionnaire II in a Chinese sample. European Journal of Psychological Assessment, 32, 128-139

Levenson, M. R., & Crumpler, C. A. (1996). Three models of adult development. Human Development, 39(3), 135-149.

Lewis, A., & Norwich, B. (2004). Special Teaching For Special Children? Pedagogies For Inclusion: A Pedagogy for Inclusion?. Maidenhead: McGraw-Hill International.

Lewis, L., Ecclestone, K., & Lund, P. (2015). Can A Rules-Based Model Illuminate Resilience Mechanisms?. Pedagogy in Practice, 1(2), 36-65.

Gunderson, L. H. & Holling, C. S. (2001). Panarchy: Understanding Transformations in Human and Natural Systems. Washington: Island Press

Libertus, M. E., Odic, D. & Halberda, J. (2012). Intuitive sense of number correlates with math scores on college-entrance examination. Acta psychologica, 141(3), 373–379

Lieberman, M., Gauvin, L., Bukowskic, W. M. & White, D. R. (2001). Interpersonal influence and disordered eating behaviors in adolescent girls The role of peer modeling, social reinforcement, and body-related teasing. Eating Behaviors, 2, 215–236

Lillard, A., & Else-Quest, N. (2006). The early years: Evaluating Montessori education. Science, 313(5795), 1893-1894.

Limbrick, L., Wheldall, K., & Madelaine, A. (2008). Gender ratios for reading disability: Are there really more boys than girls who are low-progress readers?. Australian Journal of Learning Difficulties, 13(2), 161-179.

Lindley, N. R., Giordano, P. J., & Hammer, E. D. (1999). Codependency: Predictors and psychometric issues. Journal of Clinical Psychology, 55(1), 59-64.

Lindsay, G. (2003). Inclusive Education: A Critical Perspective. British Journal of Special Education, 30(1), 3-12

Lindsay, G. (2007). Educational psychology and the effectiveness of inclusive education/mainstreaming. British Journal of Educational Psychology, 77(1), 1-24.

Link, B. G., Phelan, J. C., Bresnahan, M., Stueve, A., & Pescosolido, B. A. (1999). Public conceptions of mental illness: labels, causes, dangerousness, and social distance. American journal of public health, 89(9), 1328-1333.

Littlejohn, A., Beetham, H., & McGill, L. (2012). Learning at the digital frontier: a review of digital literacies in theory and practice. Journal of computer assisted learning, 28(6), 547-556.

Looney, J. W. (2009). Assessment and Innovation in Education, OECD Education Working Papers, No. 24, OECD Publishing.

Lopes, P. N., Salovey, P., & Straus, R. (2003). Emotional intelligence, personality, and the perceived quality of social relationships. Personality and individual Differences, 35(3), 641-658.

López, J., & Potter, G. (2005). After postmodernism: An introduction to critical realism. London: A&C Black.

Loughran, J., & Russell, T. (2000). Exploring myths and legends of teacher education. In Proceedings of the Third International Conference of the Self-Study of Teacher Education Practices, Herstmonceux Castle, East Sussex, England. Kingston, Ontario: Queen's University.

Lúcio, j., & Ferreira, F. I. (2016). Children's Rights in Times of Austerity: social awareness of pre-service teachers in Portugal. Children's Rights, Educational Research and the UNCRC, 2.

Luke, C., & Gore, J. (2014). Feminisms and critical pedagogy. New York: Routledge.

Lund, H. A., Stevenson, S. & Hugdahl, K. E. (2009). Behaviour problems in children with dyslexia. Nordic journal of psychiatry, 55(4), 251-256.

Lyubomirsky, S. (2001). Why are some people happier than others? The role of cognitive and motivational processes in well-being. American psychologist, 56(3), 239.

MacBeath, J., Galton, M., Steward, S., MacBeath, A., & Page, C. (2006). The costs of inclusion. Cambridge: University of Cambridge

MacBlain, S., Long, L., & Dunn, J. (2015). Dyslexia, Literacy and Inclusion: Child-centred Perspectives. New York: Sage.

MacDonald, C., & Stratta, E. (2001). From access to widening participation: responses to the changing population in higher education in the UK. Journal of Further and Higher Education, 25(2), 249-258.

MacDonald, S. J. (2009). Windows of reflection: conceptualizing dyslexia using the social model of disability. Dyslexia, 15(4), 347-362

MacDonald, S. J. (2010). Towards a social reality of dyslexia. British Journal of Learning Disabilities, 38(4), 271–279

Macdonald, S. J. (2012). “Journey's end”: statistical pathways into offending for adults with specific learning difficulties. Journal of Learning Disabilities and Offending Behaviour, 3(2), 85-97.

MacFarlane, K. & Woolfson, L. M. (2013). Teacher attitudes and behavior toward the inclusion of children with social, emotional and behavioral difficulties in mainstream schools: An application of the theory of planned behavior. Teaching and Teacher Education, 29, 46-52

MacKay, N. (2004). The case for dyslexia-friendly schools. Dyslexia in Context: Research, Policy and Practice, 223-236.

MacKinnon, D. P., Lockwood, C. M., Hoffman, J. M., West, S. G., & Sheets, V. (2002). A comparison of methods to test mediation and other intervening variable effects. Psychological methods, 7(1), 83.

Madden, N. A., & Slavin, R. E. (1983). Mainstreaming students with mild handicaps: Academic and social outcomes. Review of Educational Research, 53(4), 519-569

Madeja, S. S., Dorn, C. M., & Sabol, F. R. (2004). Alternative assessment strategies for schools. Arts education policy review, 105(5), 3.

Male, D. B. (2011). The impact of a professional development programme on teachers' attitudes towards inclusion. Support for Learning, 26(4), 182-186.

Malmberg, L. E., & Little, T. D. (2007). Profiles of ability, effort, and difficulty: relationships with worldviews, motivation and adjustment. Learning and Instruction, 17, 739-754

Mamas, C. (2009). Getting Along with Peers in Mainstream Primary Schools: An Exploration of the Social Status of Pupils Identified as Having Special Educational Needs in Cyprus (Doctoral thesis). University of Cambridge, Cambridge, UK.

Mansfield, K. C., Welton, A., & Halx, M. (2012). Listening to student voice: Toward a more inclusive theory for research and practice. Advances in Educational Administration, 14, 21-41.

Margalit, M. (2006). Loneliness, the Salutogenic paradigm and LD: Current research, future directions and interventional implications. Thalamus, 24(1), 38-48.

Piekkari, R., & Welch, C. (2011). The Career of a Case Researcher: An Interview with Christopher Bartlett. In R. Marschan-Piekkari and C. Welch, C. (Eds.), Rethinking the case study in international business and management research. Edward Elgar Publishing.

Marsh, H. W. (1992). Self Description Questionnaire (SDQ) II: A theoretical and empirical basis for the measurement of multiple dimensions of adolescent self-concept. A test manual and research monograph. Macarthur: University of Western Sydney, Australia.

Marsh, H. W., & O'Mara, A. (2008). Reciprocal effects between academic self-concept, self-esteem, achievement, and attainment over seven adolescent years: Unidimensional and multidimensional perspectives of self-concept. Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 34, 542-552

Martens, R., Hurks, P. P. M., Meijs, C., Wassenberg, R., & Jolles, J. (2011). Sex differences in arithmetical performance scores: Central tendency and variability. Learning and Individual Differences, 21(5), 549-554.

Martin, M. W. (2008). Paradoxes of happiness. Journal of happiness studies, 9(2), 171-184.

Martinelli, V. & Camilleri, D. (2016). Creative Giftedness and Dyslexia. Malta Review of Education Research, 10(1), 97-109

Massé, R., Poulin, C., Dassa, C., Lambert, J., Bélair, S., & Battaglini, A. (1998). The structure of mental health: Higher-order confirmatory factor analyses of psychological distress and well-being measures. Social indicators research, 45(1), 475-504.

Matthews, N. (2009). Teaching the 'invisible'disabled students in the classroom: disclosure, inclusion and the social model of disability. Teaching in higher education, 14(3), 229-239.

Mautone, J. A., DuPaul, G. J., & Jitendra, A. K. (2005). The effects of computer-assisted instruction on the mathematics performance and classroom behaviour of children with ADHD. Journal of Attention Disorders, 9(1), 301-312

Maxwell, J. A. (2010). Using numbers in qualitative research. Qualitative inquiry, 16(6), 475-482.

Maxwell, J. A. (2012). Qualitative research design: An interactive approach: An interactive approach (Vol. 41). London: Sage

Mazza, J. J., Fleming, C. B., Abbott, R. D., Haggerty, K. P., & Catalano, R. F. (2010). Identifying Trajectories of adolescents' depressive phenomena: An examination of early factors. Journal of Youth and Adolescence, 39(6), 579–593

Mazzocco, M. M., Feigenson, L. & Halberda, J. (2011). Impaired Acuity of the Approximate Number System Underlies Mathematical Learning Disability (Dyscalculia). Child Development, 82(4), 1224-1237

McCabe, J. L., & Holmes, D. (2009). Reflexivity, critical qualitative research and emancipation: A Foucauldian perspective. Journal of advanced nursing, 65(7), 1518-1526.

McCaslin, M., & Hickey, D. T. (2001). Educational psychology, social constructivism, and educational practice: A case of emergent identity. Educational Psychologist, 36(2), 133-140.

McCaughtry, N., & Rovegno, I. (2003). Development of pedagogical content knowledge: Moving from blaming students to predicting skillfulness, recognizing motor development, and understanding emotion. Journal of Teaching in Physical education, 22(4), 355-368.

McClain, C. S., Rosenfield, B. & Breitbart, W. (2003). Effect of spiritual well-being on end-of-life despair in terminally-ill cancer patients. The Lancet, 361, 063-1607

McCloskey, M. & Rapp, B. (2000). A Visually Based Developmental Reading Deficit. Journal of Memory and Language, 43, 157–181

McGrath, H., & Noble, T. (2010). Supporting positive pupil relationships: Research to practice. Educational and Child Psychology, 27(1), 79.

McLaughlin, C. (2008). Emotional well-being and its relationship to schools and classrooms: A critical reflection. British Journal of Guidance & Counselling, 36(4), 353-366.

McLellan, R. Galton, M., Steward, S. & Page, C. (2012). The Impact Of Creative Initiatives On Wellbeing: A Literature Review. Creativity, Culture and Education Series. Newcastle Upon Tyne: Creativity, Culture and Education

McLeod, S. A. (2007). BF Skinner: Operant conditioning. Retrieved January 6th, 2013, Available online: https://s3.amazonaws.com/academia.edu.documents/44186702/Skinner.pdf?AWSAccessKeyId=AKIAIWOWYYGZ2Y53UL3A&Expires=1526569784&Signature=X42FlcC9R%2B

GmL6LWqSCVoUV5T8A%3D&response-content-disposition=inline%3B%20filename%3DSkinner_-_Operant_Conditioning.pdf

McLeskey, J., Waldron, N. L., Spooner, F., & Algozzine, B. (2014). What are effective inclusive schools and why are they important. In J. McLeskey, N. L. Waldron, F. Spooner and B. Algozzine (Eds), Handbook of effective inclusive schools: Research and practice, 3, 3-16.

McLoyd, V. C. (1998). Socioeconomic Disadvantage and Child Development. American Psychologist, 53(2), 185-204

McManus, M. (2002). Troublesome behaviour in the classroom: Meeting individual needs. New York: Routledge.

McNamara, T. (2010). Reading Derrida: Language, identity and violence. Applied Linguistics Review, 1(1), 23-44.

Mcmaster, C. (2014). Limiting the Definition and the Discourse. In Tales from School (pp. 109-118). SensePublishers, Rotterdam.

McNulty, M. A. (2003). Dyslexia and the Life Course. Journal of Learning Disabilities, 36, 363-381

McPhillips, T., Bell, S., & Doveston, M. (2010). Overcoming barriers to the acquisition of literacy in twenty first century inclusive classrooms. In R. Rose (Ed), Confronting Obstacles to Inclusion. London: Routledge

Mead, N. (2011). The impact of Every Child Matters on trainee secondary teachers' understanding of professional knowledge. Pastoral Care in Education, 29(1), 7-24.

Mechanic, D. (1986) Role of social factors in health and well being: Biopsychosocial model from a social perspective. Integrative Psychiatry, 4(1), 2-7

Meichenbaum, D. (2006). Resilience and posttraumatic growth: A constructive narrative perspective. In L. G. Calhoun and R. G. Tedeschi (Eds), Handbook of posttraumatic growth: Research and practice. New York: Psychology Press

Meiklejohn, J., Phillips, C., Freedman, M. L., Griffin, M. L., Biegel, G., Roach, A., Frank, J., Burke, C., Pinger, L., Soloway, G., Isberg, R., Sibinga, E., Grossman, L. & Saltzman, A. (2012). Integrating Mindfulness Training into K-12 Education: Fostering the Resilience of Teachers and Students, Mindfulness, 3(4), 291-307

Melekian, B. A. (1990). Family Characteristics of Children with Dyslexia. Journal of Learning Disabilities, 23(6), 386-391

Mellard, D. F., & Woods, K. L. (2007). Adult life with dyslexia. Perspectives on language and literacy, 33(4), 15. Meo, A. & Parker, A. (2004). Teachers, teaching and educational

exclusion: Pupil Referral Units and pedagogic practice. International Journal of Inclusive Education, 8(1), 103-120

Mertons, D. (2005). Research and evaluation in education and psychology. Thousand Oakes, California: Sage

Miceli, G. & Capasso, R. (2006). Spelling and dysgraphia. Cognitive Neuropsychology, 23 (1), 110–134

Michalos, A. C. (2017). Multiple discrepancies theory (MDT). In A. C. Michalos (Ed), Development of Quality of Life Theory and Its Instruments. Cham, Switzerland: Springer.

Mikulincer, M., & Florian, V. (2001). Attachment style and affect regulation: Implications for coping with stress and mental health. In G. J. O. Fletcher and M. S. Clark (Eds), Blackwell handbook of social psychology: Interpersonal processes. Malden, MA: Blackwell Publishing.

Miles, S. (2000). Enabling Inclusive Educational Challenges and Dilemmas. Paper Presented at the Children with Disabilities and Convention on the Rights of the Children Conference, Bonn, Germany

Miles, T. R. (2004). Dyslexia and stress. Philadelphia PA: Whurr

Miles, M. B., & Huberman, A. M. (1994). Qualitative data analysis: An expanded sourcebook. New York: Sage.

Miller, A. (2008). A critique of positive psychology—or'the new science of happiness'. Journal of philosophy of education, 42(3‐4), 591-608.

Miller, T., Baird, T., Littlefield, C., Kofinas, G., Chapin III, F. S., & Redman, C. (2008). Epistemological pluralism: reorganizing interdisciplinary research. Ecology and Society, 13(2), 46

Miller, A., & Cunningham, K. (2011). Classroom environment. Retrieved January 6th, 2013, Available online: https://www.ortingschools.org/cms/lib03/WA01919463/Centricity/domain/326/purpose/research/Classroom%20Environment%20article.pdf.

Miller, A., Ferguson, E., & Byrne, I. (2000). Pupils' causal attributions for difficult classroom behaviour. British Journal of Educational Psychology, 70(1), 85-96.

Miller, R. W. (1981). Marx and Aristotle: A kind of consequentialism. Canadian Journal of Philosophy, 11(sup1), 323-352.

Milner, D. H. (2013). I-N-D-E-P-E-N-D-E-N-T: Increasing reading independence for students with dyslexia (Doctoral thesis). Western Carolina University, Cullowhee, North Carolina

Mintz, J. (2007). Attitudes of primary initial teacher training students to special educational needs and inclusion. Support for Learning, 22(1), 3-8.

Miyake, M., & Matsuda, F. (2002). Effects of generalized self-efficacy and negative social comparison feedback on specific self-efficacy and performance. Psychological reports, 90(1), 301-308.

Mockler, N. (2005). Trans/forming teachers: new professional learning and transformative teacher professionalism. Journal of In-service Education, 31(4), 733-746.

Modecki, K. L., Minchin, J., Harbaugh, A. G., Guerra, N. G., & Runions, K. C. (2014). Bullying prevalence across contexts: A meta-analysis measuring cyber and traditional bullying. Journal of Adolescent Health, 55(5), 602-611.

Mohr, W. K. (1997). Interpretive interactionism: Denzin's potential contribution to intervention and outcomes research. Qualitative Health Research, 7(2), 270-286.

Molko, N., Cachia, A., Rivèire, D., Mangin, J., Bruandet, M., Le Bihan, D., Cohen, L. & Dehaene, S. (2003). Functional and Structural Alterations of the Intraparietal Sulcus in a Developmental Dyscalculia of Genetic Origin. Neuron, 40, 847-868

Moncrieffe, J., & Eyben, R. (2013). The power of labelling: How people are categorized and why it matters. London: Earthscan.

Montessori, M. (2013). The Montessori method. London: Transaction publishers.

Montgomery, D. J., & Marks, L. J. (2006). Using technology to build independence in writing for students with disabilities. Preventing School Failure: Alternative Education for Children and Youth, 50(3), 33-38

Moore, A. & Malinowski, P. (2009). Meditation, Mindfulness and Cognitive Flexibility. Consciousness and Cognition, 18, 176-186

Moore, A. (2006). Recognising desire: A psychosocial approach to understanding education policy implementation and effect. Oxford Review of Education, 32(4), 487-503.

Moore, D. W., Bhadelia, R. A., Billings, R. L., Fulwiler, C., Heilman, K. M., Rood, K. M., & Gansler, D. A. (2009). Hemispheric connectivity and the visual–spatial divergent-thinking component of creativity. Brain and cognition, 70(3), 267-272.

Moran, A., & Abbott, L. (2002). Developing inclusive schools: the pivotal role of teaching assistants in promoting inclusion in special and mainstream schools in Northern Ireland. European Journal of Special Needs Education, 17(2), 161-173.

Morcom, V. E., & MacCallum, J. A. (2012). Getting personal about values: Scaffolding student participation towards an inclusive classroom community. International Journal of Inclusive Education, 16(12), 1323-1334.

Morris, I. (2015). Teaching happiness and well-being in schools: Learning to ride elephants. London: Bloomsbury Publishing.

Morrison, B., Blood, P., & Thorsborne, M. (2005). Practicing restorative justice in school communities: Addressing the challenge of culture change. Public Organization Review, 5(4), 335-357.

Morrow, V. & Richards, M. (1996). The Ethics of Social Research with Children: An Overview. Children and Society, 10, 90-105

Morrow, V. (1999). Conceptualising social capital in relation to the well-being of children and young people: a critical review. The sociological review, 47(4), 744-765.
Mortimore, T. (2008). Dyslexia and learning style: a practitioner's handbook. New York: John Wiley & Sons.

Mortimore, T., & Dupree, J. (2008). Dyslexia-friendly practice in the secondary classroom. Exeter, UK: Learning Matters.

Mucherah, W., & Finch, H. (2010). The construct validity of the Self Description Questionnaire on high school students in Kenya. International Journal of Testing, 10, 166-184

Muijs, D. (1997). Self, school and media. Leuven, Belgium: Catholic University of Leuven, Department of Communication Science.

Mulcahy, D. (2011). Assembling the 'accomplished' teacher: The performativity and politics of professional teaching standards. Educational Philosophy and Theory, 43(s1), 94-113.

Mulcahy, D. E., & Irwin, J. (2008). The standardized curriculum and delocalization: Obstacles to critical pedagogy. Radical History Review, 2008(102), 201-213.

Munn, P., Stead, J., McLeod, G., Brown, J., Cowie, M., McCluskey, G., Pirrie, A. & Scott, J. (2004). Schools for the 21st century: the national debate on education in Scotland. Research Papers in Education, 19(4), 433-452.

Munro, J. (2003). Dyscalculia: A unifying concept in understanding mathematics learning disabilities. Australian Journal of Learning Disabilities, 8(4), 25-32

Murawski, W. W. & Lochner, W. W. (2011). Observing co-teaching: What to ask for, look for, and listen for. Intervention in School and Clinic, 46(3), 174-183

Murray Thomas, R. (2004). Comparing Theories of Child Development. Belmont, CA: Wadsworth Publishing

Murray, D. J. (1968). Articulation and Acoustic confusability in short-term memory. Journal of Experimental Psychology, 78, 679-684

Murray, J. (2011). Knock, knock! Who's there? Gaining access to young children as researchers: A critical review. Educate, 11(1), 91-109.

Murray-Harvey, R. 1994. Learning styles and approaches to learning: distinguishing between concepts and instruments. British Journal of Educational Psychology, 64, 373–388

Mussolin, C., De Volder, A., Grandin, C., Schlögel, X., Nassogne, M. & Noël, M. (2009). Neural Correlates of Symbolic Number Comparison in Developmental Dyscalculia. Journal of Cognitive Neuroscience, 22(5), 860–874

Nelson, J. M., & Manset-Williamson, G. (2006). The impact of explicit, self-regulatory reading comprehension strategy instruction on the reading-specific self-efficacy, attributions, and affect of students with reading disabilities. Learning Disability Quarterly, 29(3), 213-230.

Newton, P. E. (1996). The reliability of marking of General Certificate of Secondary Education scripts: Mathematics and English. British Educational Research Journal, 22(4), 405-420.

Ng, V., & Yuen, M. T. (2016). Career guidance and counselling in an international school in Hong Kong: Literature review and a school counselor's reflection. Asian Journal of Counselling.

NHS Choices (2015). Dyslexia. Retrieved January 6th, 2016, Available online: http://www.nhs.uk/conditions/dyslexia/pages/introduction.aspx

Nic Gabhainn, S., & Sixsmith, J. (2006). Children Photographing Well-being: Facilitating Participation in Research. Children & Society, 20(4), 249-259.

Nicolson, R. I., & Fawcett, A. J. (1995). Dyslexia is more than a phonological disability. Dyslexia Chichester, 1, 19-36.

Nicolson, R. I., & Fawcett, A. J. (2011). Dyslexia, dysgraphia, procedural learning and the cerebellum. Cortex, 47(1), 117-27

Nigg, J. T. (2000). On inhibition/disinhibition in developmental psychopathology: views from cognitive and personality psychology and a working inhibition taxonomy. Psychological bulletin, 126(2), 220.

Nind, M. (2011), Participatory data analysis: a step too far?. Qualitative Research 11(4) 349–363

Nind, M., Benjamin, S., Sheehy, K., Collins, J., & Hall, K. (2004). Methodological challenges in researching inclusive school cultures. Educational Review, 56(3), 259-270.

Noaks, J., & Noaks, L. (2009). School‐based peer mediation as a strategy for social inclusion. Pastoral Care in Education, 27(1), 53-61.

Noden, P., West, A., & Hind, A. (2014). Banding and ballots: secondary school admisssions in England: admissions in 2012/13 and the impact of growth of academies. London: Sutton Trust

Norris, T. (2007). Consuming schooling: Education as simulation. Philosophy of Education Archive, 162-171.

Norwich, B. & Kelly, N. (2010). Pupils' Views on Inclusion: Moderate Learning Difficulties and Bullying in Mainstream and Special Schools. British Educational Research Journal, 30(1), 43-65

Norwich, B. (1999). Pupils' reasons for learning and behaving and for not learning and behaving in English and maths lessons in a secondary school. British Journal of Educational Psychology, 69(4), 547-569.

Norwich, B. (2013). Addressing tensions and dilemmas in inclusive education: Living with uncertainty. New York: Routledge.

Norwich, B. (2014). Changing Policy and Legislation and Its Effects on Inclusive and Special Education: A Perspective from England. British Journal of Special Education, 41 (4), 403–425.

Norwich, B., & Black, A. (2015). The placement of secondary school students with Statements of special educational needs in the more diversified system of English secondary schooling. British Journal of Special Education, 42(2), 128-151.

Norwich, B., & Lewis, A. (2005). How specialized is teaching pupils with disabilities and difficulties? In A. Lewis and B. Norwich (Eds), Special teaching for special children? Pedagogies for inclusion. Maidenhead: Open University Press

Novitz, D. (2000). Interpretation and justification. Metaphilosophy, 31(1-2), 4-24.

NSPCC (2014). Children in care statistics. Retrieved January 6th, 2016, Available online: http://bit.ly/1KJij34

Nurmi, J. (1993). Adolescent Development in an Age-graded Context: The Role of Personal Beliefs, Goals, and Strategies in the Tackling of Developmental Tasks and Standards. International Journal of Behavioral Development, 16(2), 169-189

O'Connell, R. (2012). The use of visual methods with children in a mixed methods study of family food practices. International Journal of Social Research Methodology, 1, 1-16

O'Toole, S., & de Abreu, G. (2005). Parents' past experiences as a mediational tool for understanding their child's current mathematical learning. European Journal of Psychology of Education, 20(1), 75-89.

Oasis Academy Brislington (2015). SEN Policy NOVEMBER 2015. Retrieved December 6th, 2015, Available online:

http://www.oasisacademybrislington.org/sites/default/files/files/SEN%20PolicyUSE2015.pdf

OFSTED (2001a). Standards and Quality in Education : The Annual Report of Her Majesty's Chief Inspector of Schools, London: The Stationery Office

OFSTED (2001b). The National Literacy Strategy: the third year, London: Ofsted

O'Hara, C. (2013). To Teach or Not to Teach? A study of Dyslexia in Teacher Education (Doctoral thesis). Cardiff Metropolitan University, Cardiff, UK.

Olson, R. K. (2002). Dyslexia: nature and nurture. Dyslexia, 8(3), 143-159.

Olson, R. K., Datta, H., Gayan, J., & DeFries, J. C. (1999). A behavioural-genetic analysis of reading disabilities and component processes. In R. Klein and P. McMullen (Eds.), Converging methods for understanding reading and dyslexia, 133-152. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press

Olssen, M. (2016). Michel Foucault: materialism and education. New York: Routledge.

Olsson, L. M. (2009). Movement and experimentation in young children's learning: Deleuze and Guattari in early childhood education. New York: Routledge.

Osborne C. & McLanahan S. (2007). Partnership Instability and Child Well-being. Journal of Marriage and Family. 69, 1065–1083.

Otway, L. J., & Carnelley, K. B. (2013). Exploring the associations between adult attachment security and self-actualization and self-transcendence. Self and Identity, 12(2), 217-230.

Oyserman, D. (2013). Not just any path: Implications of identity-based motivation for disparities in school outcomes. Economics of Education Review, 33, 179-190.

Ozernov‐Palchik, O., & Gaab, N. (2016). Tackling the 'dyslexia paradox': reading brain and behavior for early markers of developmental dyslexia. Wiley Interdisciplinary Reviews: Cognitive Science, 7(2), 156-176.

Paliokosta, P., & Blandford, S. (2010). Inclusion in school: a policy, ideology or lived experience? Similar findings in diverse school cultures. Support for Learning, 25(4), 179-186.

Pappamihiel, N. E. (2016). Benefits and challenges of co-teaching English learners in one elementary school in transition. TAPESTRY, 4(1), 2.

Parsons, C. (1999) Education, Exclusion and Citizenship. London: Routledge

Pavey, B. (2007). The Dyslexia-Friendly Primary School: A Practical Guide for Teachers. London: Paul Chapman Publishing Ltd.

Pavot, W., & Diener, E. (1993). Review of the satisfaction with life scale. Psychological assessment, 5(2), 164.

Pavot, W., & Diener, E. (2008). The satisfaction with life scale and the emerging construct of life satisfaction. The Journal of Positive Psychology, 3(2), 137-152.

Payne, G., & Williams, M. (2005). Generalization in qualitative research. Sociology, 39(2), 295-314.

Payne, R. (2015). Using rewards and sanctions in the classroom: pupils' perceptions of their own responses to current behaviour management strategies. Educational Review, 67(4), 483-504.

Pedder, D., & McIntyre, D. (2006). Pupil consultation: the importance of social capital. Educational Review, 58(2), 145-157.

Peled, E. & Leichtentritt, R. (2002). The Ethics of Qualitative Social Work Research. Qualitative Social Work. 1 (2), 145-169

Peluso, D. C. (2012). The fast‐paced iPad revolution: Can educators stay up to date and relevant about these ubiquitous devices?. British Journal of Educational Technology, 43(4), E125-E127.

Peng, W., Lin, J. H., Pfeiffer, K. A., & Winn, B. (2012). Need satisfaction supportive game features as motivational determinants: An experimental study of a self-determination theory guided exergame. Media Psychology, 15(2), 175-196.

Pennington, B., Bennet, L., McAteer, O. & Roberts, R. (1996). Executive functions and working memory: theoretical and measurement issues. In G.Lyon and N. Krasnegar (Eds.), Attention, memory and executive functions. Baltimore: Brookes Publishing Co

Perraudin, F. (2016). Academy trust accused of discriminating against disabled pupils. The Guardian. Retrieved January 6th, 2016, Available online: https://www.theguardian.com/education/2016/may/29/academy-trust-accused-of-discrimination-over-moving-disabled-pupils-dean-trust

Peters, J. M., Barnett, A. L., & Henderson, S. E. (2001). Clumsiness, Dyspraxia and Developmental Co-ordination Disorder: how do health and educational professionals in the UK define the terms?. Child: care, health and development, 27(5), 399-412

Peters, M. A. (2003). Truth-telling as an educational practice of the self: Foucault, parrhesia and the ethics of subjectivity. Oxford review of education, 29(2), 207-224.

Peters, R. S. (2015). Authority, responsibility and education. New York: Routledge.

Peyrin, C., Lallier, M., Demonet, J. F., Pernet, C., Baciu, M., Le Bas, J. F., & Valdois, S. (2012). Neural dissociation of phonological and visual attention span disorders in developmental dyslexia: FMRI evidence from two case reports. Brain and language,

120(3), 381-394. Phillips, D. (2006). Quality of Life: Concept, Policy and Practice. London: Routledge.

Pinfold, V., Toulmin, H., Thornicroft, G., Huxley, P., Farmer, P., & Graham, T. (2003). Reducing psychiatric stigma and discrimination: evaluation of educational interventions in UK secondary schools. The British Journal of Psychiatry, 182(4), 342-346.

Pinquart, M. & Sorensen, S. (2000). Influences of Socioeconomic Status, Social Network, and Competence on Subjective Well-Being in Later Life: A Meta-Analysis. Psychology and Aging, 15(2), 187-224

Piombo, C., Batatia, H., Ayache, A., Camichel, C. & Cedex, T. (2003). A Framework for Adapting Instruction to Cognitive Learning Styles Cognitive learning styles. Proceedings of the The 3rd IEEE International Conference on Advanced Learning Technologies (ICALT'03)

Pirrie, A., Head, G., & Brna, P. (2006). Mainstreaming pupils with special educational needs. Edinburgh: Scottish Executive Education Department

Pitt, S., & Soni, A. (2017). Students' experiences of academic success with dyslexia: A call for alternative intervention. Support for Learning, 32(4), 387-405.

Polit, D. F., & Beck, C. T. (2010). Generalization in quantitative and qualitative research: Myths and strategies. International journal of nursing studies, 47(11), 1451-1458.

Pollard, A., Black-Hawkins, K., Cliff-Hodges, G., Dudley, P., James, M., Linklater, H., Swaffield, S., Swann, M., Turner, F., Warwick, P., Winterbottom, M. & Wolpert, M.A. (2014) Reflective Teaching (4th Edn). London: Continuum.

Polychroni, F., Koukoura, K., & Anagnostou, I. (2006). Academic self‐concept, reading attitudes and approaches to learning of children with dyslexia: do they differ from their peers?. European Journal of Special Needs Education, 21(4), 415-430.

Porter, J. & Lacey P. (1999). What provision for pupils with learning difficulties and challenging behaviour?, British Journal of Special Education, 26 (1), 55-58

Prelow, H.M., Loukas, A., & Jordan-Green, L. (2007). Socioenvironmental risk and adjustment in latino youth: The mediating effects of family processes and social competence. Journal of Youth & Adolescence, 36(4), 465–476

Presland, J. (1991). Explaining away dyslexia. Educational Psychology in Practice, 6(4), 215-221

Price, G. R. & Ansari, D. (2013). Dyscalculia: Characteristics, Causes and Treatments, Numeracy, 6(1). Retrieved January 9th, 2013, Available online: http://scholarcommons.usf.edu/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=1112&context=numeracy

Price, G. R., Holloway, I., Räsänen, P., Vesterinen, M. & Ansari, D. (2007). Impaired parietal magnitude processing in developmental dyscalculia. Current Biology, 17(24), Correspondences

Pritchard, C., and Cox, M. (1998). The criminality of former "special educational provision" permanently "excluded from school" adolescents as young adults (16-23): costs and practical implications. Journal of Adolescence, 21 (5), 609-620

Priya, K. R., & Dalal, A. K. (2016). Future of Qualitative Research on Wellbeing and Self-Growth. In K. R. Priya and A. K. Dalal (Eds), Qualitative Research on Illness, Wellbeing and Self-Growth: Contemporary Indian Perspectives. London: Routledge

Pumfrey, P. D & Reason, R. (1991). Specific learning difficulties (dyslexia) : challenges and responses : a national inquiry. London: Routledge

Punch, S. (1998). Negotiating Independence: Children and Young People Growing Up in Rural Bolivia (Doctoral thesis). University of Leeds, Leeds, UK

Punch, S. (2001). Multiple Methods and Research Relations with Children in Rural Bolivia. In M. Limb and C. Dwyer (Eds) Qualitative Methodologies for Geographers. London: Arnold

Punch, S. (2002a). Research with Children: The Same or Different from Research with Adults?, Childhood, 9 (3), 321-341

Punch, S. (2002b). Interviewing strategies with young people: The 'Secret Box', stimulus material and task-based activities. Children and Society, 16, 45–56

Punch, S. (2004). Negotiating Autonomy: Children's use of time and Space in Rural Bolivia. In V. Lewis, M. Kellett, C. Robinson, S. Fraser and S. Ding (Eds), The Reality of Research with Children and Young People. London: Sage

Purcell, K. (2011). Discourses of aspiration, opportunity and attainment: promoting and contesting the academies programme. Children's Geographies, 9(1), 49-61

Putnam, R. D. (2000). Bowling alone: The collapse and revival of American community. New York: Simon & Schuste

Querne, L., Berquin, P., Vernier-Hauvette, M., Fall, S., Deltour, L., Meyer, M., de Marco, G. (2008). Dysfunction of the attentional brain network in children with Developmental Coordination Disorder: A fMRI study. Brain Research, 1244, 89-102

Radley, A. & Taylor, D. (2003) Images of recovery: a photo elicitation study on the hospital ward. Qualitative Health Research, 13(1), 77–99.

Raffo, C., & Gunter, H. (2008). Leading schools to promote social inclusion: developing a conceptual framework for analysing research, policy and practice. Journal of Education Policy, 23(4), 397-414.

Ramus, F. (2014). Should there really be a 'Dyslexia debate'?. Brain, 137(12), 3371-3374.

Randall, F. (2013). Do you know a child who has Meares-Irlen Syndrome/Visual Stress?. Practically Primary, 18(3), 27.

Rapley, M. (2004). The social construction of intellectual disability. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Rappolt-Schlichtmann, G., Ayoub, C. C., & Gravel, J. W. (2009). Examining the "whole child" to generate usable knowledge. Mind, Brain, and Education, 3(4), 209-217.

Rassool, N., & Morley, L. (2000). School effectiveness and the displacement of equity discourses in education. Race Ethnicity and Education, 3(3), 237-258.

Reb, J., Narayanan, J., & Ho, Z. W. (2015). Mindfulness at work: Antecedents and consequences of employee awareness and absent-mindedness. Mindfulness, 6(1), 111-122.

Reed, M. K. (1994). Social Skills Training to Reduce Depression in Adolescents. Adolescence, 29(114), 293-302

Rees, G., Goswami, H. & Bradshaw, J. (2010). Developing an Index of Children's Subjective Well-being in England, London: The Children's Society

Rees, G., Pople, L., & Goswami, H. (2011). Understanding children's well-being. Links between family economic factors and children's subjective well-being: Initial findings from Wave, 2 and Wave 3 quarterly surveys.UK: The Children's Society

Reeve, C. D. C. (2006) Aristotle on the Virtues of Thought. in R. Kraut (Ed), The Blackwell Guide to Aristotle's Nicomachean Ethics . Oxford: Blackwell Publishing.

Reeve, J. (2009). Why teachers adopt a controlling motivating style toward students and how they can become more autonomy supportive. Educational Psychologist, 44(3), 159-175.

Reid, G. (2016). Dyslexia: A practitioner's handbook. New York: John Wiley & Sons.

Reid, G., Elbeheri, G., & Everatt, J. (2017). Motivating Children with Specific Learning Difficulties: A Teacher's Practical Guide. Routledge.

Reid, K., Flowers, P., & Larkin, M. (2005). Interpretative Phenomenological Analysis: An overview and methodological review. The Psychologist 18, 20-3

Reinke, W. M., Stormont, M., Herman, K. C., Puri, R., & Goel, N. (2011). Supporting children's mental health in schools: Teacher perceptions of needs, roles, and barriers. School Psychology Quarterly, 26(1), 1.

Reis, H. T., Sheldon, K. M., Gable, S. L., Roscoe, J. & Ryan, R. M. (2000). Daily Well-Being: The Role of Autonomy, Competence, and Relatedness. Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 26(4), 419-435

Renshaw, P. (1998). Sociocultural pedagogy for new times: Reframing key concepts. The Australian Educational Researcher, 25(3), 83-100.

Resnik, D. B. (2011). What is ethics in research & why is it important. USA: National Institute of Environmental Health Sciences.Rettig, K.D. & Leichtentritt, R.D. (1999). A general theory for perceptual indicators of family life quality. Social Indicators Research, 47, 307–342

Reynolds, D. (2010). Failure-free Education?: The Past, Present and Future of School Effectiveness and School Improvement. London: Routledge.

Reynolds, L. (2007). Schools and the Problem of Crime. Safer Communities, 6(3), 50-52.

Rhodes, K. L. (2015). Self-Perception as a Predictor of Academic Performance in Adolescents With Learning Disabilities (Doctoral thesis). Walden University, Minneapolis, USA

Rice, J. (2006). Mathematical statistics and data analysis. UK: Thomson. Brooks/Cole.

Richards, T. L., Aylward, E. H., Berninger, V. W., Field, K. M., Grimme, A. C., Richards, A. L., & Nagy, W. (2006). Individual fMRI activation in orthographic mapping and morpheme mapping after orthographic or morphological spelling treatment in child dyslexics. Journal of Neurolinguistics, 19(1), 56-86

Richards, T. L., Berninger, V. W., & Fayol, M. (2009). fMRI activation differences between 11-year-old good and poor spellers' access in working memory to temporary and long-term orthographic representations. Journal of Neurolinguistics, 22(4), 327-353.

Richardson, J. G. & Powell, J. J. W. (2011). Comparing Special Education: Origins to Contemporary Paradoxes. California: Stanford University Press

Richardson, W. J. (2013). Heidegger: Through phenomenology to thought. Berlin: Springer.

Riddell, S. (2007). A Sociology of Special Education. In L. Florian, The Sage Handbook of Special Education, London: Sage.

Riddick, B. (1995). Dyslexia and development: An interview study. Dyslexia: An International Journal of Research and Practice 1, 63 - 74

Riddick, B. (2000). An Examination of the Relationship Between Labelling and Stigmatisation with Special Reference to Dyslexia. Disability & Society, 15(4), 653-667

Riddick, B. (2011). Dyslexia and inclusion: Time for a social model of disability perspective?, International Studies in Sociology of Education, 11(3), 223-236

Riddick, B., Sterling, C., Farmer, M., & Morgan, S. (1999). Self‐esteem and anxiety in the educational histories of adult dyslexic students. Dyslexia, 5(4), 227-248.

Ridsdale, J. (2005). Dyslexia and self-esteem. In M. Turner and J. Rack (Eds), The study of dyslexia. Boston, MA: Springer.

Riehl, C. J. (2000). The principal's role in creating inclusive schools for diverse students: A review of normative, empirical, and critical literature on the practice of educational administration. Review of educational research, 70(1), 55-81

Riggio, R. E., & Carney, D. R. (2003). Social skills inventory manual. Redwood City, CA : Mind Garden.

Riggio, R. E., Thockmorton, B. & DePaola, S. (1990). Social Skills and Self-Esteem. Personal Individual Differences, 11(8), 799-804

Riley, R. (2012). Telegraph numeracy campaign: Remove the stigma around maths. The Telegraph. Retrieved January 6th, 2013, Available online: http://www.telegraph.co.uk/education/maths-reform/9057554/Telegraph-numeracy-campaign-Remove-the-stigma-around-maths.html

Rips, L. J., Bloomfield, A., & Asmuth, J. (2005). The psychology of mathematical objects: Current Research and theory, Manuscript submitted for publication

Ritchie, S. J., Della Sala, S., & McIntosh, R. D. (2011). Irlen colored overlays do not alleviate reading difficulties. Pediatrics, 128(4), e932-e938

Rizvi, M. (2010). Development of a classroom observation schedule for measuring the efficacy of a teacher development programme. Procedia Social and Behavioral Sciences, 2, 654-660

Robertson, C. (2012). Special educational needs and disability co-ordination in a changing policy landscape: making sense of policy from a SENCo's perspective. Support for Learning, 27(2), 77-83

Rodriguez-Blazquez, C., Frades-Payo, B., Forjaz, J., Ayala, A., Martinez-Martin, P.,Fernandez-Mayoralas, G. & Rojo-Perez, F. (2011). Psychometric Properties of the International Wellbeing Index in Community-dwelling Older Adults. International Psychogeriatrics, 23(1), 161–169

Roe, J., & Aspinall, P. (2011). The restorative outcomes of forest school and conventional school in young people with good and poor behaviour. Urban forestry & urban greening, 10(3), 205-212.

Roffey, S. (2013). Inclusive and exclusive belonging: The impact on individual and community wellbeing. Educational & Child Psychology, 30(1), 38-49.

Roffey, S. (2016). Building a case for whole-child, whole-school wellbeing in challenging contexts. Educational & Child Psychology, 33(2), 30-42.

Rogers, A., & Pilgrim, D. (2014). A sociology of mental health and illness. Maidenhead: McGraw-Hill Education

Roman, P. M., & Trice, H. M. (1968). The sick role, labelling theory, and the deviant drinker. International Journal of Social Psychiatry, 14(4), 245-251.

Romi, S., & Roache, J. (2012). Excluding students from classroom: Teacher techniques that promote student responsibility. Teaching and Teacher Education, 28(6), 870-878.

Rooke, M. (2015). Creative, Successful, Dyslexic: 23 High Achievers Share Their Stories. London: Jessica Kingsley Publishers.

Rose, J. (2009). Identifying and teaching children and young people with dyslexia and literacy difficulties. London: Department for Children, Schools and Families. Retrieved 6 June 2014. Available Online: http://www.dcsf.gov.uk/jimroseanddyslexia/

Rose, R., & Howley, M. (2006). The practical guide to special educational needs in inclusive primary classrooms. New York: Sage.

Rosenhan, D. L. (1973). On being sane in insane places. Science, 179(4070), 250-258.

Rosenzweig, S. (1936). Some implicit common factors in diverse methods of psychotherapy. American journal of Orthopsychiatry, 6(3), 412.

Rothman, H. R., & Cosden, M. (1995). The relationship between self-perception of a learning disability and achievement, self-concept and social support. Learning Disability Quarterly, 18(3), 203-212.

Rowe, F., Stewart, D., & Patterson, C. (2007). Promoting school connectedness through whole school approaches. Health Education, 107(6), 524-542.

Russell, J. M. (1973). Psychotherapy and quasi-performative speech. Behaviorism, 1(2), 77-86.

Russell, T. (1995). Critical Attributes of a Reflective Teacher: Is Agreement Possible? In J. Calderhead and P. Gates (Eds.), Conceptualising Reflection In Teacher Development. London: Falmer Press

Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (2010). Self-determination. John Wiley & Sons, Inc..

Ryan, M. (1992). The social and emotional effects of dyslexia. The Education Digest, 57(5), 68.

Ryan, M. (2004). Social and Emotional Problems Related to Dyslexia, International Dyslexia Association Fact Sheet series. Michigan: International Dyslexia Association

Ryan, R. M., & Deci, E. L. (2001). On Happiness and Human Potentials : A Review of Research on Hedonic and Eudaimonic Well-Being. Annual Review of Psychology, 52, 141-166

Ryan, R. M., & Deci, E. L. (2003). On assimilating identities to the self: A self-determination theory perspective on internalization and integrity within cultures. In M. R. Leary & J. P. Tangney (Eds.), Handbook of self and identity. New York: Guilford Press
Ryan, R.M. & Deci, E.L. (2000) Self-determination theory and the facilitation of intrinsic motivation, social development, and well-being. American Psychologist, 55(1), 68–78

Ryan, R. M., & Huta, V. (2009). Wellness as healthy functioning or wellness as happiness: The importance of eudaimonic thinking (response to the Kashdan et al. and Waterman discussion). The Journal of Positive Psychology, 4(3), 202-204.

Ryder, D., & Norwich, B. (2018). What's in a name? Perspectives of dyslexia assessors working with students in the UK higher education sector. Dyslexia, 24(2), 109-127

Ryff, C. & Carol D. (1989). Happiness is everything, or is it? Explorations on the meaning of psychological well-being. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology 57 (6), 1069–1081

Ryff, C. & Keyes, L. M. (1995). The Structure of Psychological Well-Being Revisited. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 69(4),719-727

Ryff, C. & Singer, B. H. (2008). Know Thyself and Become What You Are: A Eudaimonic Approach To Psychological Well-Being. Journal of Happiness Studies, 9, 13–39

Ryff, C. D., & Heidrich, S. M. (1997). Experience and well-being: Explorations on domains of life and how they matter. International Journal of Behavioral Development, 20(2), 193-206.

Sachs, J. (2001). Teacher professional identity: Competing discourses, competing outcomes. Journal of education policy, 16(2), 149-161.

Saffran,J. R. & Estes, K.G. (2006). Mapping sound to meaning: Connections between learning about sounds and learning about words. In R. Kail (Ed.), Advances in Child Development and Behavior. New York: Elsevier

Samdal, O., Nutbeam, D., Wold, B., & Kannas, L. (1998). Achieving health and educational goals through schools—a study of the importance of the school climate and the students' satisfaction with school. Health education research, 13(3), 383-397.

Sammons, P., Sylva, K., Melhuish, E., Siraj-Blatchford, I., Taggart, B., Draghici, D., Toth, K. & Smees, R. (2011). Effective Pre-school, Primary and Secondary Education Project (EPPSE 3-14): Influences on students' attainment and progress in Key Stage 3:

Academic outcomes in English, maths and science in Year 9 Full report. University of London, UK: Institute of Education

Sánchez, J., Salinas, A., Contreras, D., & Meyer, E. (2011). Does the new digital generation of learners exist? A qualitative study. British Journal of Educational Technology, 42(4), 543-556.

Sanders, C. E., Field, T. M., & Diego, M. A. (2001). Adolescents' academic expectations and achievement. Adolescence, 36(144), 795.

Sandford, R. A., Duncombe, R., & Armour, K. M. (2008). The role of physical activity/sport in tackling youth disaffection and anti-social behaviour. Educational Review, 60(4), 419-435.

Sarvimäki, A. (2006). Well-being as being well—A Heideggerian look at well-being. International Journal of Qualitative Studies on Health and Well-being, 1(1), 4-10.

Save the Children (2000). Children and Participation. Retrieved January 6th, 2013, Available online: http://www.savethechildren.org.uk/resources/online-library/children-and-participation-research-monitoring-and-evaluation-children-and

Sawyer, D. J. (2006). Dyslexia: a generation of inquiry. Topics in Language Disorders, 26(2), 95-109

Scanlon, D. M. & Vellutino, F. R. (2009). A Comparison of the Instructional Backgrounds and Cognitive Profiles of Poor, Average, and Good Readers Who Were Initially Identified as At Risk for Reading Failure. Scientific Studies of Reading, 1(3), 191-215

Schäfer, M., Korn, S., Brodbeck, F. C., Wolke, D., & Schulz, H. (2005). Bullying roles in changing contexts: The stability of victim and bully roles from primary to secondary school. International Journal of Behavioral Development, 29(4), 323-335.

Schaffer, H. R., & Emerson, P. E. (1964). The development of social attachments in infancy. Monographs of the society for research in child development, 1-77.

Schenck, J., & Cruickshank, J. (2015). Evolving Kolb Experiential Education in the Age of Neuroscience. Journal of Experiential Education, 38(1), 73-95.

Scheurich, J. J. (1994). Social relativism: A postmodernist epistemology for educational administration. In S. J. Maxcy (Ed.), Postmodern school leadership: Meeting the crisis in educational administration. Westport, CT: Praeger.

Schimmack, U. (2008a). Measuring wellbeing in the SOEP. SOEP papers on Multidisciplinary Panel Data Research, Berlin, Paper 145

Schimmack, U. (2008). The structure of subjective well-being. In M. Eid and R. J. Larsen, (Eds.), The Science of Subjective Well-being. New York: The Guilford Press

Schimmack, U., Schupp, J. & Wagner, G. G. (2007). The Influence of Environment and Personality on the Affective and Cognitive Component of Subjective Well-being. Social Indicators Research, 89(1), 41-60.

Schlessinger, S. L. (2013). Enacting inclusivity in an exclusionary climate: What motivates teachers to work against dominant special education and accountability discourses (Doctoral thesis). Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, USA.

Schulze, B. (2007). Stigma and mental health professionals: a review of the evidence on an intricate relationship. International review of Psychiatry, 19(2), 137-155.

Schutz, Alfred (1962). Collected Papers, Vol. 1. The Hague: Martinus Nijhoff.

Schutz, Alfred (1967). The Phenomenology of the Social World. Evanston, IL: Northwestern University Press.

Schwartz, E. K. (2012). Richard Branson and the dyslexia advantage. Washington Post. Retrieved January 6th, 2013, Available online: http:// articles.washingtonpost.com/2012-11-07/national/35506104_1_dyslexia-richard-branson-smart-phones

Scruggs, T. E., Mastropieri, M. A., & McDuffie, K. A. (2007). Co-teaching in inclusive classrooms: A metasynthesis of qualitative research. Exceptional Children, 73(4), 392-416.

Seale, J. K. (2013). E-learning and disability in higher education: accessibility research and practice. New York: Routledge.

Sebba, J., & Sachdev, D. (1997). What works in inclusive education? Ilford, UK: Barnardos

Seeman, M. (1991). Alienation and anomie. Measures of personality and social psychological attitudes, 1, 291-371.

Segrin, C. & Rynes, K. N. (2009). The mediating role of positive relations with others in associations between depressive symptoms, social skills, and perceived stress. Journal of Research in Personality, 43, 962–971

Segrin, C. (2000). Social Skills Deficits Associated With Depression. Clinical Psychology Review, 20(3), 379–403

Seligson, J. L., Huebner, E. S., & Valois, R. F. (2003). Preliminary validation of the Brief Multidimensional Students' Life Satisfaction Scale (BMSLSS). Social Indicators Research, 61(2), 121-145.

Shaw, W. (2006). The consequentialist perspective. In J. Dreier (Ed.), Contemporary Debates in Moral Theory. Malden, MA: Blackwell

Shaywitz, S. E., Mody, M. & Shaywitz, B. A. (2006). Neural Mechanisms in Dyslexia. Current Directions in Psychological Science, 15(6), 278-281

Sheldon, K. M., Ryan, R. M., Deci, E. L., & Kasser, T. (2004). The independent effects of goal contents and motives on well-being: It's both what you pursue and why you pursue it. Personality and social psychology bulletin, 30(4), 475-486.

Shim, S. S., Cho, Y., & Wang, C. (2013). Classroom goal structures, social achievement goals, and adjustment in middle school. Learning and Instruction, 23, 69-77.

Shinebourne, P. (2011). The Theoretical Underpinnings of Interpretative Phenomenological Analysis (IPA). Existential Analysis: Journal of the Society for Existential Analysis, 22(1).

Shkedi, A., & Laron, D. (2004). Between idealism and pragmatism: a case study of student teachers' pedagogical development. Teaching and teacher education, 20(7), 693-711

Shoemaker, D. J. (2000). Theories of Delinquency: An Examination of Explanations of Delinquent Behavior. New York: Oxford University Press

Shucksmith, J., Summerbell, C., Jones, S. & Whittaker, V. (2007). Mental Wellbeing of Children in Primary Education, UK: University of Teesside

Sideridis, G. D. (2007). Why Are Students With LD Depressed? A Goal Orientation Model of Depression Vulnerability. Journal of Learning Disabilities, 40(6), 526-539

Siegel, H. (2012). Epistemological diversity and education research: much ado about nothing much?. In C. W. Ruitenberg and D. C. Phillips (Eds), Education, Culture and Epistemological Diversity. Amsterdam: Springer.

Silverman, L. K. (2009). The two-edged sword of compensation: How the gifted cope with learning disabilities. Gifted Education International, 25(2), 115-130.

Simmerman, S., Blacher, J., & Baker, B. L. (2001). Fathers' and mothers' perceptions of father involvement in families with young children with a disability. Journal of Intellectual and Developmental Disability, 26(4), 325-338.

Simmons, C., Graham, A., & Thomas, N. (2015). Imagining an ideal school for wellbeing: Locating student voice. Journal of Educational Change, 16(2), 129-144.

Simpson, S. (2000). Dyslexia: A Developmental Language Disorder. Child: Care, Health and Development, 26(5) 355-380

Singleton, C. H. (2009). Visual stress and dyslexia. In G. Reid (Ed), The Routledge Companion to Dyslexia. London: Routledge.

Sixsmith, J., Gabhainn, S. N., Fleming, C. & Higgins, S. (2007). Children's, Parents' and Teachers' Perceptions of Child Wellbeing. Health Education, 107(6), 511-523

Skaalvik, E. M., & Skaalvik, S. (2017). Motivated for teaching? Associations with school goal structure, teacher self-efficacy, job satisfaction and emotional exhaustion. Teaching and Teacher Education, 67, 152-160.

Skagerlund, K., & Träff, U. (2016). Number processing and heterogeneity of developmental dyscalculia: Subtypes with different cognitive profiles and deficits. Journal of learning disabilities, 49(1), 36-50.

Skinner, E. A., & Belmont, M. J. (1993). Motivation in the classroom: Reciprocal effects of teacher behavior and student engagement across the school year. Journal of educational psychology, 85(4), 571.

Skinner, T. (2011). Dyslexia, mothering and work: intersecting identities, reframing,'drowning'and resistance. Disability & Society, 26(2), 125-137.

Slonim-Nevo, V., & Nevo, I. (2009). Conflicting findings in mixed methods research: an illustration from an Israeli study on immigration. Journal of Mixed Methods Research, 3(2), 109-128.

Smith, H. M., & Betz, N. E. (2000). Development and validation of a scale of perceived social self-efficacy. Journal of Career Assessment, 8(3), 283-301.

Smith, D. E., & Mosby, G. (2003). Jamaican child-rearing practices: The role of corporal punishment. Adolescence, 38(150), 369.

Smith, J. A. (1996). Beyond the divide between cognition and discourse: Using interpretative phenomenological analysis in health psychology. Psychology and health, 11(2), 261-271.

Smith, J. (2002). Learning Styles: Fashion Fad or Lever for Change? The Application of Learning Style Theory to Inclusive Curriculum Delivery. Innovations in Education and Teaching International, 39(1), 63-70

Smith, J. A. (2003). Validity and qualitative psychology. In J. A. Smith (Ed), Qualitative psychology: A practical guide to research methods. London: Sage

Smith, J. A. (2004a). Reflecting on the development of interpretative phenomenological analysis and its contribution to qualitative research in psychology. Qualitative research in psychology, 1(1), 39-54.

Smith, P. B. (2004b). Acquiescent response bias as an aspect of cultural communication style. Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology, 35(1), 50-61.

Smith, J. A., Flowers, P., & Larkin, M. (2009). Interpretative phenomenological analysis: Theory, method and research. London: Sage.

Smith, J. A., Jarman, M. & Osborn, M. (1999). Doing interpretative phenomenological analysis. In M. Murray and K. Chamberlain (Eds.) Qualitative Health Psychology: theories and methods. London, Sage

Smith, J., & Osborn, M. (2003). Interpretative Phenomenological Analysis. In J. Smith (Ed) In Qualitative Psychology: A practical guide to research methods. London: Sage

Smith, M. T. (2001). Multisensory Teaching System for Reading. Paper presented at the Fifth BDA International Conference, University of York, April 18–21. Retrieved January 6th, 2013, Available online: http://www.bdainternationalconference.org/2001/presentations/thu_s3_a_4.htm

Smith-Spark, J. H., & Fisk, J. E. (2007). Working memory functioning in developmental dyslexia. Memory, 15(1), 34–56

Snowling, M. (1980). The development of grapheme-phoneme correspondence in normal and dyslexic readers. Journal of Experimental Child Psychology, 29, 294-305

Snowling, M. (1998) 'Dyslexia: A Phonological Deficit: Evidence and Implications'. Child Psychology and Psychiatry Review, 3(1) 4–11

Snowling, M. J., Gallagher, A., & Frith, U. (2003). Family risk of dyslexia is continuous: Individual differences in the precursors of reading skill. Child development, 74(2), 358-373.

Snyder, C. R. & Lopez, S. J. (2009). Oxford Handbook of Positive Psychology. Oxford: OUP

Soler, J., Fletcher-Campbell, F. & Reid, G. (2009). Understanding Difficulties in Literacy Development: Issues and Concepts. Milton Keynes: Open University

Solomon, Y., Warin, J., & Lewis, C. (2002). Helping with homework? Homework as a site of tension for parents and teenagers. British educational research journal, 28(4), 603-622.

Sommer, D., Samuelsson, I. P., & Hundeide, K. (2010). Children's perspectives as 'touch downs' in time: assessing and developing children's understanding simultaneously. Early Child Development and Care, 179(2), 205-216

Sosu, E. M., Mtika, P., & Colucci‐Gray, L. (2010). Does initial teacher education make a difference? The impact of teacher preparation on student teachers' attitudes towards educational inclusion. Journal of Education for Teaching, 36(4), 389-405.

Sparks, R. L. & Ganschow, L. (1991). Foreign Language Learning Differences: Affective or Native Language Aptitude Differences?, The Modern Language Journal, 75(1), 3-16

Spielhofer, T., Benton, T., & Schagen, S. (2004). A study of the effects of school size and single‐sex education in English schools. Research Papers in Education, 19(2), 133-159.

Split, J. L., Leflot, G., Onghena, P., & Colpin, H. (2016). Use of Praise and Reprimands as Critical Ingredients of Teacher Behavior Management: Effects on Children's Development in the Context of a Teacher-Mediated Classroom Intervention. Prevention Science, 17(6), 732-742.

Spratt, J., 2016. Childhood wellbeing: What role for education? British Educational Research Journal, 42(2), pp. 223-239

Spratt, J. (2017). Wellbeing, Equity and Education: A Critical Analysis of Policy Discourses of Wellbeing in Schools. Cham, Switzerland: Springer.

Springer, K. W. & Hauser, R. M. (2006). An Assessment of the Construct Validity of Ryff's Scales of Psychological Well-Being: Method, Mode and Measurement Effects. Social Science Research 35, 1080–1102

SPSS. (1999). SPSS for Windows (Release 10.0.5). Chicago: Author

Stacey, G. (2010). Personalised strategies for effective study. Dyslexia Review, 21(2), 16.

Stake, R. (1980). The case method inquiry in social inquiry. In H. Simons (Ed.), Towards a science of the singular. Norwich: CARE

Stein, J. & Walsh, V. (1997). To see but not to read; the magnocellular theory of dyslexia. Trends in Neurosciences, 20(4), 147-152

Stein, J. (2001). The sensory basis of reading problems. Developmental Neuropsychology, 20, 509–534

Stephenson, E. A., & Chesson, R. A. (2008). ‘Always the guiding hand’: parents' accounts of the long‐term implications of developmental co‐ordination disorder for their children and families. Child: care, health and development, 34(3), 335-343.

Stetsenko, A. (2009). Teaching–learning and development as activist projects of historical Becoming: expanding Vygotsky's approach to pedagogy. Pedagogies: An International Journal, 5(1), 6-16.

Stewart, M. A. (2010). Dyslexia Friendly Schools Explored : A Narrative Inquiry of International Schools, In Press

Strauss, D. (2015). Complex and challenging: supporting young children identified with special educational needs. In C. Ritchie (Ed), Challenge and Change for the Early Years Workforce: Working with Children from Birth to 8. London: Routledge

Strnadová, I. (2006). Stress and resilience in families of children with specific learning disabilities. Revista Complutense de Educación, 17(2), 35.

Sullivan, A. M., Johnson, B., Owens, L., & Conway, R. (2014). Punish them or engage them? Teachers' views of unproductive student behaviours in the classroom. Australian Journal of Teacher Education, 39, 43-56

Sutton, S. K., & Davidson, R. J. (1997). Prefrontal brain asymmetry: A biological substrate of the behavioral approach and inhibition systems. Psychological Science, 8(3), 204-210.

Swain, K. D., Nordness, P. D. & Leader-Janssen, E. M. (2012). Changes in Preservice Teacher Attitudes Toward Inclusion. Preventing School Failure: Alternative Education for Children and Youth, 56(2), 75-81

Swansea University (2015). What are SpLDs. Retrieved January 6th, 2016, Available online: https://myuni.swansea.ac.uk/myuni-academic-study-services/cas/stas/who,is,stas,for/specific,learning,difficulties/

Sylwester, R., & Moursund, D. (2012). Creating an Appropriate 21 Century Education. Oregon: Information Age Education

Szente, J. (2007). Empowering young children for success in school and in life. Early Childhood Education Journal, 34(6), 449-453.

Takacs, D. (2002). Positionality, epistemology, and social justice in the classroom. Social Justice, 29(4 (90), 168-181.

Talmor, R., Reiter, S. & Feigin, N. (2005). Factors relating to regular education teacher burnout in inclusive education. European Journal of Special Needs Education, 20(2), 215–229

Tapasak, R., & Walter-Thomas, C. (1999). Evaluation of a first-year inclusion program. Remedial and Special Education, 20(4), 216-225

Tapscott, D. (2009). Grown up digital: How the Net Generation is changing your world. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Tashakkori, A. & Teddlie, C. (1998). Mixed methodology: Combining qualitative and quantitative approaches. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications

Tay, L., & Diener, E. (2011). Needs and subjective well-being around the world. Journal of personality and social psychology, 101(2), 354.

Terras, M. M., Thompson, L. C., & Minnis, H. (2009). Dyslexia and psycho‐social functioning: an exploratory study of the role of self-esteem and understanding. Dyslexia, 15(4), 304-327.

Terzi, L. (2005). Beyond the dilemma of difference: The capability approach to disability and special educational needs. Journal of philosophy of education, 39(3), 443-459.

Tharp, R. (1999). Therapist as teacher: A developmental model of psychotherapy. Human Development, 42(1), 18-25.

The Collett School (2015). Specific Learning Difficulties. Retrieved January 6th, 2016, Available online: http://www.collett.herts.sch.uk/specific-learning-difficulties

The Guardian (2014). Michael Gove urges 'traditional' punishments for school misbehaviour. Retrieved January 6th, 2015, Available online: http://www.theguardian.com/education/2014/feb/02/michael-gove-traditional-punishments-school-misbehaviour

The Royal Society (2004). Well-being: towards an integration of psychology, neurobiology and social science. Philosophy of Transference Royal Society of London, 359, 1447–1451

Thomas, D. (1993). Gritty, sensible and utilitarian-the only model?: Special educational needs, initial teacher training and professional development. In A. Dyson (Ed), Rethinking Special Needs in Mainstream Schools. London: David Fulton.

Thomas, G. (2009a). An Epistemology for Inclusion. In P. Hick, R. Kershner and P. Farrell (Eds.). Psychology for inclusive education: New directions in theory and practice. New York: Routledge.

Thomas, G. (2009b) How to do Your Research Project: a Guide for Students in Education and Applied Social Sciences. London: Sage.

Thomas, G., Walker, D., & Webb, J. (2006). The making of the inclusive school. New York: Routledge.

Thomas, M. (2011). Deconstructing digital natives: Young people, technology, and the new literacies. New York: Taylor & Francis.

Thompson, J. (2010). Good Practice in interventions for teaching dyslexic learners and in teacher training in English speaking countries. Boston: Harvard Graduate School of Education.

Thomson, M. (2003). Monitoring dyslexics' intelligence and attainments: A follow-up study. Dyslexia, 9(1), 3-17.

Thomson, P. & Hall, C. (2008). Dialogues with Artists: Analysing Children's Self Portraits. In P. Thomson (Eds), Doing Visual Research with Children and Young People. New York: Routledge

Thornton, K. (1999). Help for dyslexia comes too late. The London Times Educational Supplement, 25-27.

Tijms, J. (2004). Verbal memory and phonological processing in dyslexia. Journal of Research in Reading, 27(3), 300–310

Tilstone, C., Florian, L., & Rose, R. (1998). Promoting inclusive practice. London: Routledge.

Tippett, N., Wolke, D., & Platt, L. (2013). Ethnicity and bullying involvement in a national UK youth sample. Journal of adolescence, 36(4), 639-649.

Titone, C. (2005). The philosophy of inclusion: Roadblocks and remedies for the teacher and the teacher educator. The Journal of Educational Thought (JET)/Revue de la Pensée Educative, 7-32.

Tod, J., & Soan, S. (2013). Specific Learning Difficulties (SpLD)/dyslexia. In S. Soan (Ed), Additional Educational Needs: Inclusive Approaches to Teaching. London: David Fulton

Tokuhama-Espinosa, T. (2011). Why Mind, Brain, and Education Scienceis the" New" Brain-Based Education. New Horizons for Learning, 9(1).

Tomyn, A. J., & Cummins, R. A. (2011). The subjective wellbeing of high-school students: Validating the personal wellbeing index—school children. Social Indicators Research, 101(3), 405-418.

Tressoldi, P. E., Rosati, M. & Lucangeli, D. (2007). Patterns of Developmental Dyscalculia with or without Dyslexia. Neurocase, 13(4), 217-225

Troeva, B. (2015). Helping learners with dyslexia read in English. English Studies, 1(1), 63-71.

Trott, C. (2011). Dyscalculia in further and higher education. Patoss Bulletin, 24 (1), 53-59

Tsai, M. C., Chang, H. H., & Chen, W. (2011). Globally Happy: Individual Globalization, Expanded Capacities, and Subjective Wellbeing. Social Indicators Research, 108(3), 509–524

Ttofi, M. M., & Farrington, D. P. (2011). Effectiveness of school-based programs to reduce bullying: A systematic and meta-analytic review. Journal of Experimental Criminology, 7(1), 27-56.

Tutty, J., White, B., & Pascoe, R. (2005). Experiences from a wireless-enabled tablet classroom. In Proceedings of the 7th Australasian conference on Computing education-42, 165-172. Australian Computer Society

Ukkola-Vuoti, L., Kanduri, C., Oikkonen, J., Buck, G., Blancher, C., Raijas, P., Karma, K., Lähdesmäki, H. & Järvelä, I. (2013). Genome-wide copy number variation analysis in extended families and unrelated individuals characterized for musical aptitude and creativity in music. PLoS One, 8(2), e56356.

UN. (2006). Convention on the rights of persons with disabilities and optional protocol. New York: UN

Underwood, M. K., & Ehrenreich, S. E. (2014). Bullying may be fueled by the desperate need to belong. Theory into practice, 53(4), 265-270.UNICEF (2007). An Overview of Child Wellbeing in Rich Countries, New York: UNICEF

Urbis (2011). The Psychological And Emotional Wellbeing Needs Of Children And Young People: Models Of Effective Practice In Educational Settings. Australia: Department for Education and Communities

Vaillancourt, T., Hymel, S., & McDougall, P. (2003). Bullying is power: Implications for school-based intervention strategies. Journal of Applied School Psychology, 19(2), 157-176.

Vaillancourt, T., McDougall, P., Hymel, S., Krygsman, A., Miller, J., Stiver, K., & Davis, C. (2008). Bullying: Are researchers and children/youth talking about the same thing? International Journal of Behavioral Development, 32, 486–495

Vaivre-Douret, L., Lalanne, C., Ingster-Moati, I., Boddaert, N., Cabrol, D., Dufier, J.-L., Golse, B., et al. (2011). Subtypes of developmental coordination disorder: research on their nature and etiology. Developmental neuropsychology, 36(5), 614–43

Vagle, M. D. (2014). Crafting phenomenological research. Walnut Creek, CA: Left Coast Press.

ValÅs, H. (1999). Students with learning disabilities and low-achieving students: Peer acceptance, loneliness, self-esteem, and depression. Social Psychology of Education, 3(3), 173-192.

Valdois, S., Bidet-Ildei, C., Lassus-Sangosse, D., Reilhac, C., N'guyen-Morel, M., Guinet, E & Orliaguet, J. (2011). A visual processing but no phonological disorder in a child with mixed dyslexia. Cortex, 47, 1197-1218

Van Veen, K., Sleegers, P., & Van de Ven, P. H. (2005). One teacher's identity, emotions, and commitment to change: A case study into the cognitive–affective processes of a secondary school teacher in the context of reforms. Teaching and teacher education, 21(8), 917-934.

Vaughn, S., & Klingner, J. K. (1998). Students' perceptions of inclusion and resource room settings. The Journal of Special Education, 32(2), 79-88.

Vaz, S., Parsons, R., Falkmer, T., Passmore, A. E., & Falkmer, M. (2014). The impact of personal background and school contextual factors on academic competence and mental health functioning across the primary-secondary school transition. PloS one, 9(3), e89874.

Veck, W. (2014). Disability and inclusive education in times of austerity. British Journal of Sociology of Education, 35(5), 777-799.

Veenhoven, R. (2005). Happiness in hardship. Economics and happiness: Framing the analysis, 243-266.

Veenhoven, R. (2012). Cross-national differences in happiness: Cultural measurement bias or effect of culture?. International Journal of Wellbeing, 2(4), 333-353.

Vellutino, F. R., & Fletcher, J. M. (2005). Developmental dyslexia. In M. S. C. Hulme (Ed.), The science of reading: A handbook. Malden, MA: Blackwell.

Vellutino, F. R., Fletcher, J. M., Snowling, M. J. & Scanlon, D. M. (2004). Speci¢c reading disability (dyslexia): what have we learned in the past four decades?, Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry 45(1), 2–40

Verene, D. P. (2002). The art of humane education. New York: Cornell University Press.

Vignoles, V. L., Regalia, C., Manzi, C., Golledge, J., & Scabini, E. (2006). Beyond self-esteem: influence of multiple motives on identity construction. Journal of personality and social psychology, 90(2), 308.

Visser, J. (2003). Developmental coordination disorder: a review of research on subtypes and comorbidities. Human Movement Science, 22(4-5), 479–493

Von Aster, M., & Shalev, R. (2007). Number development and developmental dyscalculia. Developmental Medicine and Child Neurology, 49, 868–873

Von Károlyi, C., Winner, E., Gray, W., & Sherman, G. F. (2003). Dyslexia linked to talent: Global visual-spatial ability. Brain and Language, 85(3), 427–431.Wadeson, H. (2010). Art psychotherapy.New York: John Wiley & Sons.

Wahlstrom, K. L., & Louis, K. S. (2008). How teachers experience principal leadership: The roles of professional community, trust, efficacy, and shared responsibility. Educational Administration Quarterly, 44(4), 458-495

Walker, M. (2011). Kant, Schopenhauer and Morality: Recovering the Categorical Imperative. Boston, MA: Springer.

Wampold, B. E., & Imel, Z. E. (2015). The great psychotherapy debate: The evidence for what makes psychotherapy work. London: Routledge.

Waters, T. E., & Fivush, R. (2015). Relations between narrative coherence, identity, and psychological well‐being in emerging adulthood. Journal of personality, 83(4), 441-451.

Washburn, E. K., Mulcahy, C. A., Joshi, R. M., & Binks-Cantrell, E. (2016). Teacher Knowledge of Dyslexia. Perspectives on Language and Literacy, 42(4), 9.

Waterman, A. S., Schwartz, S. J., & Conti, R. (2008). The implications of two conceptions of happiness (hedonic enjoyment and eudaimonia) for the understanding of intrinsic motivation. Journal of Happiness Studies, 9(1), 41-79.

Watkinson, A. (2002). When is a teacher not a teacher? When she is a teaching assistant. Education 3-13, 30(1), 58-65.

Watson, N., Shakespeare, T., Cunningham-Burley, S., Barnes, C., Corker, M., Davis, J. and Priestley, M. (2000) Life as a disabled child: A qualitative study of young people's experiences and perspectives: final report to the ESRC. Department of Nursing Studies, University of Edinburgh, Edinburgh, Scotland.

Weare, K. (2004). Developing the emotionally literate school. London: Sage.

Weare, K. & Gray, G. (2003). What Works in Developing Children's Emotional and Social Competence and Wellbeing. UK: Department for Education and Skills, Research Report RR456

Wearmouth, J. (2004). Learning from James: lessons about policy and practice for schools' special provision in the area of literacy difficulties. British Journal of Special Education, 31(2), 60-67

Weber, S. (2008). Visual Images in Research. In J. G. Knowles and A. L Cole (Eds), Handbook of the Arts in Qualitative Research. London: Sage

Wellman, B. & Gulia, M. (1999). Net surfers don't ride alone: Virtual communities as communities. In B. Wellman (Ed), Networks in the global village. Boulder, CO: WestviewWentzel, K. R. (1998). Social relationships and motivation in middle school: The role of parents, teachers, and peers. Journal of educational psychology, 90(2), 202.

West, A. (2007). Poverty and educational achievement: why do children from low-income families tend to do less well at school?. Benefits, 15(3), 283-297

West, H. (2008). The Blackwell guide to Mill's utilitarianism. New York: John Wiley & Sons.

Westwood, P. (2007). Commonsense methods for children with special educational needs. New York: Routledge.

Westwood, P., & Graham, L. (2003). Inclusion of students with special needs: Benefits and obstacles perceived by teachers in New South Wales and South Australia. Australian Journal of Learning Difficulties, 8(1), 3-15.

Wheadon, C., & Béguin, A. (2010). Fears for tiers: are candidates being appropriately rewarded for their performance in tiered examinations?. Assessment in Education: Principles, Policy & Practice, 17(3), 287-300.

White, J. (2006). The aims of school education. Institute for Public Research Policy. Retrieved January 6th, 2013, Available online: http://www.ippr. org/uploadedFiles/research/projects/Education/The% 20Aims% 20of% 20School% 20Ed% 20FINAL.Pdf

White, S. C. (2008). But what is well-being? A framework for analysis in social and development policy and practice. In Conference on regeneration and wellbeing: research into practice, University of Bradford (Vol. 2425). Bath: Centre for Development Studies

White, J. (2012). Sen , well-being and the aims-based curriculum. In Philosophy of Education Society of Great Britain Annual Conference Oxford: New College, Oxford University

White, S. C. (2010). Analysing wellbeing: a framework for development practice. Development in Practice, 20(2), 158-172.

Whitehead, J. (2004) What counts as evidence in self-studies of teacher education practices? In Loughran, J. J., Hamilton, M. L., LaBoskey, V. K. & Russell, T. (2004) International Handbook of Self-study of Teaching and Teacher Education Practices. Dordrecht; Kluwer Academic Publishers

Whitted, K. S., & Dupper, D. R. (2005). Best practices for preventing or reducing bullying in schools. Children & Schools, 27(3), 167-175.

Whitty, G., & Wisby, E. (2007). Whose voice? An exploration of the current policy interest in pupil involvement in school decision-making. International Studies in Sociology of Education, 17(3), 303-319.

Wilde, M., & Williamson, J. (2016). Evidence and epistemic causality. In W. Weiderman and A. Von Eye (Eds), Statistics and causality. New Jersey: John Wiley and Sons

Wilkins, T., & Nietfeld, J. L. (2004). The effect of a school‐wide inclusion training programme upon teachers' attitudes about inclusion. Journal of Research in Special Educational Needs, 4(3), 115-121.

Williams, P. (2004). Incorporating Social Role Valorisation into Other Contexts of Needs Assessment, Anti-Oppressive Practice and the Application of Values. International Journal of Disability, Community & Rehabilitation, 3(1).

Williams, S. (1999). The therapist as outsider: The truth of the stranger. British Journal of Psychotherapy, 16(1), 3-15.

Williamson, C. (2014). Effects of Disability Awareness Educational Programs on an Inclusive Classroom. (Honors thesis). The Honors College, Bowling Green State University, Ohio, USA

Willig, C. (2009). Introducing qualitative research in psychology (2nd ed.). Glasgow: Open University Press

Willms, J. D. (2003). Monitoring school performance: A guide for educators. London: Routledge.

Willms, J. D., Friesen, S. & Milton, P. (2009). What did you do in school today? Transforming classrooms through social, academic, and intellectual engagement. (First National Report). Toronto: Canadian Education Association

Willner, P., & Mitchell, P. J. (2002). The validity of animal models of predisposition to depression. Behavioural pharmacology, 13(3), 169-188.

Wilson, A. J., Revkin, S. K., Cohen, D., Cohen, L., & Dehaene, S. (2006). An open trial assessment of "The Number Race", an adaptive computer game for remediation of dyscalculia. Behavioral and brain functions, 2(1), 20

Wilson, B. N., Crawford, S. G., Green, D., Roberts, G., Aylott, A., & Kaplan, B. J. (2009). Psychometric properties of the revised Developmental Coordination Disorder Questionnaire. Physical & occupational therapy in paediatrics, 29(2), 182–202

Wilson, H. K., Pianta, R. C., & Stuhlman, M. (2007). Typical classroom experiences in first grade: The role of classroom climate and functional risk in the development of social competencies. The Elementary School Journal, 108(2), 81-96.

Winter, E. C. (2006). Preparing new teachers for inclusive schools and classrooms. Support for Learning, 21(2), 85-91

Wollny, I., Apps, J., & Henricson, C. (2010). Can government measure family wellbeing. London: Family and Parenting Institute Printing

Wong, F. K. D., Chang, Y. L. & He, X. S. (2009). Correlates of psychological wellbeing of children of migrant workers in Shanghai, China,.Social Psychiatric Epidemiology, 44, 815-824

Wood, J. V. (1989). Theory and research concerning social comparisons of personal attributes. Psychological bulletin, 106(2), 231.

Wood, J. V., & Wilson, A. E. (2003). How important is social comparison?. Body Image 3, 211–227

Wood, J. V., Taylor, S. E., Lichtman, R. R. (1985). Social comparison in adjustment to breast cancer. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 49(5), 1169-1183

Woods, G., O'Neill, M., & Woods, P. A. (1997). Spiritual values in education: lessons from Steiner?. The International Journal of Children's Spirituality, 2(2), 25-40.

Wragg, E. C. (1999). Introduction to Classroom Observation 2nd Edition. New York: Psychology Press

Wray, J., Harrison, P., Aspland, J., Taghzouit, J., Pace, K., & Gibson, H. (2008). The Impact of Specific Learning Difficulties (SpLD) on the Progression and Retention of Student Nurses. UK: Higher Education Academy

Wright, M. O. D., Crawford, E., & Del Castillo, D. (2009). Childhood emotional maltreatment and later psychological distress among college students: The mediating role of maladaptive schemas. Child abuse & neglect, 33(1), 59-68.

Wrigley, T. (2004). 'School effectiveness': the problem of reductionism. British educational research journal, 30(2), 227-244.

Youdell, D. (2006a). Diversity, inequality, and a post-structural politics for education. Discourse: Studies in the cultural politics of education, 27(1), 33-42.

Young Minds (2017). Wise up: prioritising wellbeing in schools. London: Young Minds

Youdell, D. (2006b). Subjectivation and performative politics—Butler thinking Althusser and Foucault: intelligibility, agency and the raced–nationed–religioned subjects of education. British Journal of Sociology of Education, 27(4), 511-528.

Young, M. (2011). The return to subjects: A sociological perspective on the UK coalition government's approach to the 14–19 curriculum. Curriculum Journal, 22(2), 265-278.

Zambo, D. (2004). Using Qualitative Methods to Understand the Educational Experiences of Students with Dyslexia. The Qualitative Report, 9(1), 80-94

Ziegler, J. C. & Goswami, U. (2005). Reading Acquisition, Developmental Dyslexia, and Skilled Reading Across Languages: A Psycholinguistic Grain Size Theory. Psychological Bulletin, 131(1), 3–29

Zimmerman, B. J. (1990). Self-regulated learning and academic achievement: An overview. Educational psychologist, 25(1), 3-17.

Zimmerman, M. A., Copeland, L. A., Shope, J. T. & Dielman, T. E. (1996). A Longitudinal Study of Self-Esteem: Implications for Adolescent Development. Journal of Youth and Adolescence, 26(2), 117-141

Zimmerman, S.L. (2003). Child and family wellbeing in states with different political cultures. Families in Society, 84(2), 275–284

Zionts, L. T. (2005). Examining Relationships between students and teachers. Attachment in middle childhood, 231-254.

Zwicker, J. G., Missiuna, C., Harris, S. R. & Boyd, L. A. (2011). Brain activation associated with motor skill practice in children with developmental coordination disorder: an fMRI study. International Journal of Developmental Neuroscience